February 1960

The Personnel and Guidance Journal

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The

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Transmitted by Max F. Baer

MENTALLY RETARDED YOUTH: TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

Classes in public schools: In order to get current information as to what's being done in public schools to help older mentally retarded youth toward employment, National Association of State Directors of Special Education made survey of states in which special education personnel is employed at state level. Survey form was sent to 44 states and District of Columbia, and 35 replies were received for response of 78 per cent. Schools in responding states operated 8,712 classes for educable mentally retarded children with enrollment of 137,637 pupils. In addition they had 951 classes for trainable retarded children with enrollment of 9,506 pupils. Most of the states admit children as early as 6 years of age with mental ages varying from 2 to 4 years. In 23 states mentally retarded children are permitted to remain in special classes until they reach age of 21. Nearly all permit them to continue in school until they are 17.

Responsibility for employment: There were 28 states which indicated that the schools are accepting to some extent responsibility for guiding or placing in employment older mentally retarded youth. Of those reporting, 29 states anticipate that more will be attempted in job placement than is being done now. Reports on stumbling blocks met by schools in this effort were distributed as follows: work permits, 12; curricular restrictions, 8; legality of work-school programs, 9; parental attitudes, 12; employer resistance, 18; nonacceptance by a vocational rehabilitation agency, 11. Orientation of pupils for entry into jobs is included in curriculum of special classes according to 27 state reports.

Vocational rehabilitation: According to summary provided by Salvatore G. DiMichael, since 1943 there has been constant, gradual growth in serving mentally retarded. From 1945-1950 inclusive, 2,091 mentally retarded individuals were rehabilitated into gainful employment. In years 1951-1956 inclusive, total of 3,628 such persons were rehabilitated. In 1957, state vocational rehabilitations agencies prepared and placed into gainful employment 1,094 retarded persons, with 1958 estimate at 1,250. In 1958 U. S.

Office of Vocational Rehabilitation spent more than 1 million dollars exclusively for mentally retarded, while state agencies spent an additional $450,000.

More information: You may be interested in complete report entitled Preparation of Mentally Retarded Youth for Gainful Employment, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation Series No. 507, available for 35 cents from Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

MARITAL AND FAMILY STATUS

Earlier marriages: According to Bureau of Census, since 1890 average age at first marriage for persons in this country has gone down significantly. Average age at which men marry has decreased by almost 4 years, and average age at marriage for women by almost 2 years. Whereas in 1890 median age at first marriage for men was 26.1 years and for women 22.0 years, in 1959 it was only 22.3 years for men and 20.2 years for women. Largest drop in median age at first marriage occurred during 1940's, with decrease of more than 1 year. Since 1950, median age at marriage of women has remained relatively stable, but there is some indication that median age at which women marry may have declined about one-half year.

Background factors: Long-run decrease in median age at first marriage has taken place despite fact that average young person of today stays in school several years longer than was true generation ago. Increased economic prosperity and greater job security have probably been major factors in long-run reduction in median age at first marriage. Another factor may be growing tendency for young wives to find or continue employment after marriage, thus giving young couple at least temporarily a considerably larger income than could be obtained from husband's earnings alone. In addition, more widespread planning of number and timing of births, as well as other social factors, may also have been causes.

More marriages: Decreasing age at first marriage, increasing proportion of persons who ever marry, and changing age composition of population have resulted in continual increase since 1890 in proportion of married persons and decrease in proportion of single persons. Proportion of males 14 years old and over who are married climbed from 52 per cent in 1890 to 70 per cent in 1959, while proportion of bachelors slid from 44 to 25 per cent. Similar trend was evident for women—increase in proportion married from 55 to 66 per cent and drop in proportion single from 34 to 19 per cent.

THE COUNSELOR AND HIS MANPOWER RESPONSIBILITIES

WITHIN THE broader educational purposes of the school, the counselors' tasks broadly conceived concern, first, mental health and, secondly, manpower. Just as education is concerned with the welfare of the individual and the welfare of the community, so is counseling. Both mental health and manpower are concepts that directly reflect upon the welfare of the individual and also upon the status of the society in which he lives, but when counselors talk about mental health, emotional stability, personal adjustment, or happiness, they usually are thinking about the way the individual feels and the behavior that is a direct cause or result of his feelings. On the other hand, in discussions of manpower, the referent usually is the productivity of the worker in terms of his contribution to his fellow men. Obviously, personal adjustment and productivity, mental health and manpower are intimately related, and when we discuss the manpower responsibilities of the counselor, as we will here, we must remember that almost everything said with a slight twist can be made to refer directly to the mental health functions of the counselor. Here, however, we will be concerned with this particular aspect of counseling—the manpower implications.

Much has been written and said during the past decade concerning the manpower problems we face. Our population in the United States is increasing in a quite unusual way. We have a great increase in the number of persons in the country but no proportionate increase as yet in the number of workers in their productive years. Due to the relatively low birth rate prior to World War II, the number of persons in the age range from 20 to 40 is quite small compared to the very large number of persons in the younger age range and to the increasingly large number of persons in the older ages. Thus, we have a larger population and greater demands for production and services, and at the same time we have no proportionate increase in the number of persons who are to make these products and services available.

The kinds of workers needed also have changed during recent decades. The proportion of workers who are in highly trained professional occupations has increased perhaps 25 per cent, but the need, and the demand, has been unmet in such occupations as medicine, teaching, nursing, engineering, mathematics, chemistry, physics, psychology, and management. Simultaneously, the proportion of workers required for jobs calling for little or no special training has declined, and this decline is continuing or even accelerating.

Underlying Assumptions

Those who have been concerned with manpower research have made a few rather explicit assumptions:

1. Every individual should be given the opportunity to obtain training at the maximum of his capacity.

2. Every person should be given an opportunity to have full knowledge concerning his capacities and potentialities and to decide for himself the extent to which these will be utilized.

3. The community must make available to an individual those experiences and situations which will give him full opportunity to appreciate his own potentialities and to realize the satisfaction that can be derived from their fulfillment.

RALPH F. BERDIE is Director of the Student Counseling Bureau and Professor of Psychology at the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

This article is based on a paper presented at the Saskatoon meeting, 1959, of the University Counseling and Placement Association, Canada.

4. A "well-manned" society must provide education and training to persons at all levels of abilities and skills, not only to a few selected leaders.

5. Society must encourage within its members broad diversity of talents and skills and eventually provide equal opportunities to persons developing skills in the sciences, the arts, humanities, and government and the social studies.

These assumptions throw much light upon the role of the counselor as it relates to both his responsibilities to the individual and to society. Certainly, they stress the fact that the counselor cannot achieve his goals by working in an interviewing room alone with a counselee, but rather in addition to working with individuals he also must assume his social responsibilities as he works with the schools, the universities, and other broad aspects of society. The effective counselor must be not only an effective educator and a competent psychologist but also a practicing citizen.

In order to maximize the probability of happiness for the individual and production and protection for society, two general approaches are available. The first approach would involve the identification of social objectives and the distribution of individuals, upon the basis of their abilities and potentials, into pursuits that lead to these social objectives. For instance, a government could decide that a given number of engineers, mathematicians, accountants, and nurses would be required within a certain period of time to obtain the objectives of that government. Children then could be analyzed, diagnosed, studied, and assigned to training programs in proportions that would result in the desired number of persons in each occupation. The second alternative would provide each individual with the greatest possible opportunity to become acquainted with his own potentials and possibilities and then allow each individual, within broad limits, to select the kind of training he wished to pursue. During his education, each student would be provided ample opportunity to review his own potential and to become acquainted with changes and developments as they occur in his abilities and personality. A maximum of opportunity would be provided for an individual to transfer from one training program to another and to continually revise his educational and occupational objectives in light of changes of ability, interests, and opportunity. Social objectives thus in part would be determined by the number of persons in different occupations and the number of citizens expressing various types of interests as shown by both educational and occupational activities.

The first alternative is a planned approach based on the assumption that men and communities can foresee and predict their own needs with some degree of accuracy and that persons can be used to attain social objectives in this way. The second alternative rests on the assumption that each man should have the opportunity for self-fulfillment and that the nature of society and the organization of the community must depend upon the ways individuals seek and find such fulfillment.

These two alternatives, obviously, are two extremes and the actual practice in most of our societies falls somewhere between. Usually the community possesses some control over the attractiveness of occupations. Through means of monetary, social, and other rewards, subsidized training through scholarships and other grants, and increases in status and prestige, society influences the numbers of persons entering occupations. The publication and dissemination of labor market and occupational information serve this same purpose. Job requirements can be changed and incentives manipulated to gain social control in a system of free choice.

Counseling also can be an instrument for filling manpower complements, but most counselors will not happily accept this assignment. The counselor is not responsible for providing the appropriate number of

workers needed to fill the jobs society wishes filled, but rather, he can best serve the community and the individual by assisting each individual to find his own potential, to become acquainted with his own self, to accept himself as a person, to exploit his social and psychological environment in order to attain the desired fulfillment, and to constantly seek for new opportunities that will help him become a person. When he does this, the jobs most likely will be filled, but if they are not, then this is a much broader problem that touches on all of the values of our society.

Identification of Talent

The counselor has begun to play an important role in our schools in identifying individuals with rare and exceptional talents and calling these individuals to the attention of others in positions to help the person take advantage of these abilities. Thus, competent counselors in junior and senior high schools and in colleges and universities are in positions to identify students who eventually will become productive, if not great, authors, musicians, chemists, engineers, cabinet makers, designers, teachers, and statesmen. Equally as important as this job of identifying students with exceptional talents, however, is the job of helping each individual study his own abilities and aptitudes in order to determine which of these abilities can be utilized to the best advantage, which perhaps should be by-passed or ignored.

For each student with exceptional talent, there are many students with only average abilities, and the significance of any social contribution made by the rare individual who happens to be in the appropriate occupation is matched by the sum of the significances of the contributions made by the many mediocre persons each of whom is in an appropriate occupation. Perhaps more important than the social contribution made by the individual or the group of persons is the satisfaction and the feeling that can be derived from the ability to perform well in the work of one's choice.

Perhaps the one generalization that can be made is that the probability of identifying talent is increased if a systematic program is established for this purpose. Teachers and counselors, as well as parents and others, are able in many instances to find children who have unusual abilities or to help children determine what are their outstanding abilities, but if this is left to chance, in many, many cases students will be overlooked unless a school and a community provide systematic opportunity for the study and review of each individual.

Cultivation of Talent

The counselor's responsibility for the use of human resources does not end when the exceptionally talented individual has been identified and when the talents of all have been properly evaluated. The counselor and the school must find and know the abilities of students, but it is equally important that the student and his family also know about these abilities. The process of acquainting the student and his family with the potential of the student is an important counseling function, and here we all must agree that simply to make known the existence of these abilities is not sufficient; further steps are necessary. To give the student and his family information about abilities is not the same as to lead these persons to a point where they are able to accept the reality of this information and to understand its implications. Even acceptance and understanding are not enough to lead to a person's developing his own personal resources. The student must have opportunities to acquire the education and training appropriate for him, and also he must have the desire.

Let us look for a moment at the problem of the high-ability student who terminates his education upon graduation from high school. Fortunately, most bright students, at least in the United States, at present wish and seek education beyond high school. Among very bright students, perhaps between 90 and 95 per cent go on to higher education. These consist of the upper one to five per cent of the population in terms of abstract or academic ability. Thus, almost

all exceptionally bright persons now at least are obtaining some higher training. If we become less selective and look only at the upper one-third of high school graduates (the upper third in terms of ability as shown both by college aptitude tests and high school achievement), we might safely generalize and say that approximately one-half of these students are now attending colleges and universities. We are failing to send on to continued education only a very small proportion of our exceptionally bright youngsters, but we are failing to educate beyond high school a rather large proportion of persons quite capable of completing college work, even in one of our more demanding institutions.

Certain groups can be identified that contribute more than their share to the non-college-going, bright student. For instance, the female sex perhaps is the most delinquent group here. In almost every study reported, a far larger proportion of men than women drawn from comparable populations continue in college. One slight exception sometimes is noted; that is, among rural groups sometimes more women than men are found attending college. The rural group itself perhaps is the second most delinquent group. The sons and daughters of farmers are less prone to go to college than are children of equal ability whose parents are city folks. Economic and occupational groups also vary greatly in the frequency with which children attend college. Considering Minnesota high school seniors who had college aptitude test scores that placed them in the upper 10 per cent of their class, of the children of fathers in top-level occupations, 90 per cent planned to attend college; but of the children of factory laborers, only 55 per cent planned to attend college. Considering the children of different occupational groups and disregarding ability, differences, of course, were even larger. For instance, 81 per cent of all of the sons of professional workers planned to attend college, as compared to 30 per cent of all of the sons of factory workers. Although the relationship of college attendance to occupational status of parents is marked, we must remember that in almost every occupational group studied in Minnesota more than 50 per cent of the high-ability students were planning to attend college. College certainly is not restricted to the occupationally or economically privileged.

Certain religious, racial, and national groups fail to send their share of students to college. In the entire country, relatively few Negroes attend college. In Minnesota, if the same proportion of Indians as of non-Indians attended college, more than 200 Indian students would be in college instead of the less than 20 now enrolled. In some communities college attendance is strongly influenced by attitudes related to church and religion. The influences of race, nationality, and religion are difficult to isolate from those of economic status, ability, and family attitude, but nevertheless their effects are disturbing.

All-Important Attitudes

When we consider the reasons why high-ability students do not attend college, we obtain some clues in general as to why persons fail to develop their potentials and what might be done about this. The most frequently given reason as far as both students and speculators are concerned is an economic reason. It is assumed that if students had more money, more of them would attend college or university. The general acceptance of this reasoning is evidenced by the great pressure for the establishment of scholarship and financial aid programs. On the basis of studies done both in Minnesota and elsewhere, we can conclude that this is a reason for many persons not attending college. Many persons, if they had more financial help, would change their plans and go to college. Most people, however, overestimate the number whose plans would so be changed. In Minnesota, when we asked high school seniors what they planned to do during the year following graduation, almost one-third said they planned to join the labor force with no additional training. Of these 9,000 students who planned to go to work, one-third or 3,000 said they would go to college if they had more money. About 50 per cent of this one-third said

they would need enough money to pay all of their expenses. About 10 per cent of these 9,000 students said they could easily afford to go to college if they wanted to, and another 20 per cent said they could barely afford it. Thus, about one-third could afford to attend college if they wanted to, but they were not planning to. Of the high-ability students in this study who were not going to college, fewer than 10 per cent indicated that they could easily afford college, and approximately an additional 25 per cent indicated they could barely afford college.

These figures suggested that lack of money was not the only important factor in determining whether or not high-ability students attend college. Many of the students who were not planning on college immediately after high school graduation had plans for eventually entering college. For instance, 24 per cent of the 96 metropolitan boys of high ability planning to work the year after graduation said they eventually planned to enter a profession. There were 711 high-ability students in this total group who planned to work, and of these, 58 per cent said they would attend college if they had more money. Thus, all of the evidence appeared to indicate that although lack of money was an important reason for students failing to continue their education, there were other reasons.

Information obtained in studies from questionnaires, interviews with students, case histories, and interviews with parents suggested that as important as any other reason is the attitude of the parent. A surprisingly large number of students reply when asked when they decided to attend college, that they had never made such a decision, that they simply always had assumed they would. A family apparently talks about college and education when the child is still small, and it is this type of conversation and related attitudes that determine in large part what the student does when he matures. Some interesting items related to college going can be found. For instance, the number of books a student reports in his home is closely related to whether or not he attends college. The education of the parents naturally is closely related to college attendance, and interestingly enough, the education of the mother seems to be a more potent variable than does the education of the father. This might make those persons think who contend it more important to educate our men than our women. Evidently, one of the ways for us to obtain more educated men is to have more educated mothers.

The types of organizations and the types of recreational activities families participate in are related to college attendance. When an attempt was made to isolate the relationship between economic conditions and college attendance and social-cultural conditions and college attendance, the latter correlation was slightly higher. In general, the conclusion seems justified: development of one's potential appears to be as much a function of one's attitudes and desires as it does a function of one's opportunities.

Counseling Implications

What does all of this mean for the counselor? First, it suggests that those processes that result in decisions to develop one's talents and abilities occupy long periods of time, and counseling that is to help students make these decisions must also be extensive. Counselors cannot be optimistic about the effects of counseling interviews conducted in the senior year; for instance, in many schools each graduating senior has only one or two interviews with a counselor. Counseling must extend not only through the senior year but through the junior and the sophomore year and the freshman year, and more and more recognition must be given to the need for counseling at least from grade seven on. Just as the decision-making process is a continuous one, so must be the counseling process.

Another implication is that counseling must, in the future, take into consideration factors related to the family more than has ever been done in the past. Just as teacher-parent conferences are becoming increasingly prevalent in our elementary schools, so must counselor-parent conferences increase in our junior and senior high schools.

Parents can learn and accept what counselors can tell them regarding their children through counseling; the chances of this learning or acceptance occurring through the means of a single counseling report, either a written one or an oral one, is small.

Another implication derived only indirectly from the data at hand, can be stated in this way. In our concern over manpower and the development of the individual, we often have acted as if students were not motivated for college or for appropriate training and our job were to provide such motivation. We have seemed to assume that in the absence of motivation for college there was no motivation at all. We had better look at this assumption for when we talk with individual students it frequently appears that these students have strong motivations for things other than college. We are faced not with the problem of developing a motivation for college but rather with the job of helping the student understand his present motivation, consider the desirability of that motivation, and then if the student appears willing, stimulating whatever motivation is present for college so that the student arrives at a decision appropriate for him.

In conclusion, the counselor's responsibilities do not end when he has the student's abilities identified and the student rolling along on what appears to be an appropriate educational and occupational highway. The counselor is concerned with the student's obtaining the maximum benefit from his education. Many students lack certain basic educational skills that cause them trouble in college or in whatever training they select. Some college students do not read well enough to do college work, and counselors can help remedy this situation. Some college students do not have the other learning skills college requires, and counselors can understand and help in this way. Many students of superior academic ability find difficulty in their school work and even fail in their work, as a result of personal frustrations, family difficulties, feelings of social inadequacy, or minor or even major mental diseases. The counselor, as one author has said, has a major responsibility for delivering to the classroom the student in an optimum condition for learning.

A student's educational and occupational plans are not completely formed when he begins his training. Periodically, a student should review his plans, consider the appropriateness of these plans in light of his progress, take into account changes in opportunities and new opportunities that have developed, and review his felt satisfactions with the kind of activity in which he is engaged. The counselor's function here is an important one.

In all of this, the counselor's role is not to advise the student or to make the student dependent upon a presumed authority. Rather, the counselor is neglecting his major responsibility if he does not help the student ever seek increasing independence, develop new skills in making decisions, learn how to explore problems, and acquire evidence needed in the solution of these problems. In this sense, the counselor is an educator. His greatest role perhaps is to help students apply to their own personal lives those same processes that concern others in the academic enterprise. When students can sense when they have problems and needs, when they can adequately understand the nature of these problems, when they can explore possible solutions and evaluate evidence relevant for these solutions, when they know how to solve personal problems just as they know how to solve more abstract or impersonal problems, then the educational role of the counselor is fulfilled.

The manpower role of the counselor is best fulfilled when he provides the counselee with the type of help that will allow the student to understand himself, his abilities, his interests, and his personality, that will lead to the student's acquiring information about the many opportunities that surround him, both educational and occupational, and that will enable the student to arrive at the unique solution that best fits him individually. When individuals are able to make these decisions and influence their behavior accordingly, then our manpower problem can be solved.

THE BIG PICTURE—

A Perspective on Education

BENJAMIN C. WILLIS

THE PROFESSION of teaching and the institution of public education have recently undergone an unprecedented inquiry in an atmosphere of controversy, criticism, and analysis. Nearly every vocal person has had an opinion as to what is needed and what should be done, but these persons have seldom agreed because they seldom look at the whole picture of education. They lack perspective.

It is the perspective of the big picture of education which I wish to try to present today so we may identify and meet the central challenges to public education in America.

The Whole Versus Its Parts

However, I want to talk first about the big picture simply as an idea. It is the idea of the whole, of oneness; essentially, of integrity. In one context or another, this idea of wholeness permeates our beliefs, our concepts, and our searching. The search for meaning or significance underlies religious belief, saturates philosophical thought, and explains the interpretation of history. You will find it in the Testaments, in Plato, and in Toynbee who warns us against the periscope view of events. Poetry translates it into imagery, and our great novels turn it into story. The greatness of creative men is calculated on their full contribution. We can enjoy only one Beethoven sonata at a time, but we accord him his pre-eminent position in this musical form because his achievement extended to 32. In the same way it is not alone *Hamlet* or *Othello* or *King Lear* which stamps Shakespeare as unsurpassed, but rather it is his total creativity. It is all his plays and sonnets.

Time assists us in attaining this kind of perspective, but in our day-to-day life, in which we run to keep up with our particular present tasks, it is sometimes difficult to see the whole. Staring at one particular tree we lose sight of the woods in which we stand. Not only are we sometimes too close to an event to see the total trend, but we do not have the information which describes the big picture. Sometimes we are too emotionally involved in a piece to observe the whole.

Conventions have a way of helping us recapture perspective and of focusing our attention again on the entire panorama, by bringing together for equal exchange persons of many points of view and special concerns. In this, the present convention will surely succeed, as guidance itself is directed toward the big picture for each individual. Interpretation is the heart of guidance. It encourages each person to acquire a perspective of himself as he is and as he can relate himself to the world around him so that he can be a more nearly complete person. But guidance is a part of something larger—it is a part of the whole program of education.

The Big Picture of America

To view guidance one must look at the total educational program, but any perspective on education must start with a view of America. When we look at the big picture of America, what do we see?

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This article is based on the Keynote Address presented by Dr. Willis at the American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention, Cleveland, Ohio, March 23, 1959.

Well, of course since the 12th of March we see a flag of 50 stars, with our statehood spanning two thousand miles of water in one direction and a thousand miles of a foreign country in another. One part of our country, our newest American state, at the cross roads of the Pacific, is closer to Tokyo and Vladivostok than it is to Portland, Maine. It is practically equidistant from New York, Manila, Sidney, and Panama. Territorially speaking this is the big picture of America. It is no longer a solid land mass surrounded by protecting water.

Second, we see a phenomenal increase in population that is a reflection of the world increase. In the year 1957–1958, the population of the earth increased by the equivalent of two nations the size of France. By the year 2000 the population of the world is expected to reach 7 billions. It is going to be crowded by the year 2000. Perhaps you and I will not be here then, but the children in the first grade this year will be just in their prime. Those graduating from high school this year will be under 60 years of age in the year 2000—hardly old any more, at all.

Third, we should look at the production picture and at the financial picture. These too are part of the whole. I shall not go into gross national product figures or recount the extraordinary total of private savings in this country. You can quote such figures as well as I. Millions and billions may be difficult to comprehend, but they must be regarded as the whole of which our own personal economic effort in mere hundreds and thousands is a part.

It is, of course, impossible as I have just demonstrated to speak of the big picture of America without placing it in perspective with the world. We cannot ignore our responsibilities or our relationship to other parts—even so remote a place as Cambodia where I saw at first hand last summer educational hunger, the striving, and the dependence upon such help as we can give. One cannot delve into the situation of a have-not nation and retain a placid attitude toward America's relationship to fellowmen half way round the world. We and they are both a part of the same world and growth for them and for us is a mutual concern.

The Big Picture in Education

The physical scope of our country, our population growth, our production, our international position all impinge upon the educational future, but when we attempt to relate them, to get a true perspective, we realize we must start with our basic American values. Any other base is a partial, faulty one. Briefly, translated into education, the application of our values means: first, the right of each individual to as much education as he can assimilate and second, but of equal importance, the diversification of the educational program to make possible this goal for young persons with wide ranges of ability. The educational program must accomplish two purposes: to prepare youth for social responsibility and to make possible their personal fulfillment. In these respects guidance and pupil personnel services are themselves value-centered necessities in the total educational effort. In keeping with our values, which place heavy responsibilities upon the public for educational policies, education must develop the competence and judgment in the population at large so it can discharge this kind of responsibility for self-government.

Finally, the application of our values to public education subsumes public responsibility for the financing of the educational endeavor. Three hundred years ago this country declared education to be a public responsibility as a principle. This set of values created the educational enterprise, has forced its growth outward and upward, and now challenges us to uphold them today. It is futile, however, to quote the past as the standard for today. We uphold our values only if we do so in today's context. Traditional form must not be confused with fundamental beliefs. It is fully possible to adhere to our basic values and yet move with the times. I shall illustrate my point briefly with examples from school administration which indicate our need to appraise our program in terms of the present.

Historically, our annual school cycle was geared to an agrarian economy, which demanded that young people interrupt their education to help get the crops in. Today, in a predominately urban society, our long summer vacations resemble the vermiform appendix. Another example—until the last 30 or 40 years, a major function of the schools was to prepare children of foreign born parents for citizenship, by teaching a common language, civic comprehension, and the American way of life. *Assimilation* was our gigantic civic problem. Education for citizenship we called it, and placed it first in our goals, where it remains today—but in a different context. Citizenship today embraces the ability to earn a living, the skill to fill out an income tax return, and the mental health to avoid highway accidents.

As another example, because current events have awakened an interest in Russian, we have a demand now for a language we ignored for years. Teachers must be found immediately if the schools are to satisfy this interest in the moment it awakens and not several years hence. As a final example, television, hi-fi sets, the automobile, the radio, and the airplane are exposing our nursery age children to ideas and relationships that some of their grandparents were oblivious to for a lifetime. We still teach reading to our primary school children, but against a different experiential background. These examples indicate the impact of change and of life upon the schools, requiring adjustments in methods, techniques, and programs of education, but leaving our values unchanged.

The inexorable passage of time demands imagination from us and illustrates the futility of preparing young people in yesterday's schools with yesterday's curriculum for yesterday's demands. I am reminded of the treasured wedding dress which will not span the modern daughter's waist. In keeping pace while we keep faith it is not enough to distinguish the possible from the impossible. We must also be able to distinguish what is intrinsic in the continuity of civilization from what is extraneous to it. As Edith Hamilton has written, "Civilization, a much abused word, stands for a high matter quite apart from telephones and electric lights. It is a matter of imponderables, of delight in things of the mind, of love of beauty, of honor, grace, courtesy, delicate feelings. Where imponderables are the things of first importance, there is the height of civilization, and if, at the same time, the power to act exists unimpaired, human life has reached a level seldom attained and very seldom surpassed" [*1, p. 106*].

I thought of this concept last summer amidst the overwhelming spectacle of Angkor Wath where ancient temples of extraordinary grace and delicacy stretched around us for 60 square miles. Khmer Warrior Kings a thousand years ago are believed to have built them, but what happened to the civilization, no one knows. All we know is that the jungle obliterated them and memory forgot them until about a century ago. What happened to this highly skilled world of stone cutters? What impaired their power to act so as to continue their civilization?

Education must encourage the power to act, and it must generate this power in and of itself. For some time now, we have permitted ourselves to be buffeted and have been slow to declare what must be recognized: that our national progress is based upon public and universal and continuing education. It is the major tool for development. Both personal and national stature depend upon it. Native talent is our basis, but education nurtures it, refines it, elaborates it, and releases it. What is more, it is from education that insight arises and judgments are formed. The last few years have presented a paradoxical situation: on the one hand, a level of skill sufficient to refrigerate cooked meals, build a successful Nautilus, control polio, out-produce distribution, and conquer space; and on the other hand, a shrill repudiation of these very skills because somebody else got there first in one department.

If education is to assume the initiative and foster the power to act it must meet a three-fold challenge. Each, or all, can be viewed through a periscope or in perspec-

tive. Let us look at each in both ways quickly.

The First Challenge: Quality Education

The first of these challenges is the search for high quality in education. In the last year, the Educational Policies Commission has issued two publications on this topic. These pamphlets point out the complexity of this search and the fallacy of trying to equate quality with a standardized curriculum or uniform achievement. Uniformity is the periscope view. The big picture extends far beyond the small circle. Quality in education for all children is deeper than a concentration in academic subjects and broader than the number of scholarships awarded to graduates. A student is more than his IQ score. He is a person with interests and feelings and attitudes. He lives in a home with a particular cultural background, with ambitions, and sometimes with aspirational myopia. All of these must be taken into consideration when we try to see the whole picture of quality education for him. Quality is an individual matter, and a total educational program has quality only when it provides a high standard of varied experience suitable for students with a wide range of abilities and interests.

Dr. Conant has done a major service in suggesting a conclusion that is to be derived from his 21 points. It seems to me that this conclusion is quite simply that excellence has a price. It is a price paid, first of all, in time, and time among other things means staff. He points this out in his proposed counselor-pupil ratio, in his argument for reduction of the English teacher's load, in his plan for provision for advanced study in foreign languages for small numbers of students, and in his support for fifth majors for some students. We do not expect doctors to see more patients than quality of performance allows. We recognize that there is a relationship between number of people to be served and performance for lawyers, for barbers, beauty operators, and TV repairmen. Why not for school faculties?

Any educational program must provide seven elements to be considered to be of high quality: first, is an educational philosophy which functions democratically; second, is identification of individual abilities, interests, and educational needs; third, is a diversified curriculum to care for the individuals as individuals and not as standardized pegs. Fourth, the teachers must be professional—by which I mean well educated, highly motivated, and technically competent. The fifth element is provision for guidance and pupil personnel services other than the identification service mentioned above. Sixth, is incentive for creative experimentation. Seventh, facilities, equipment, and supplies must be adequate and accessible.

There is nothing startling in this list, and it could be extended to include some of the means whereby these attributes are obtained. It suggests the scope necessary for there to be a high quality of education.

The Second Challenge: Sound Fiscal Policy

Last October, *Fortune* ran an article called, "The Low Productivity of the Education Industry." In the list of tables on the cover of the magazine was the legend, "Should Education Be Efficient?" This article turns the tables on the phrase, "education is big business." The tenor of its argument is well illustrated in a footnote comparing money spent on liquor and cigarettes with money spent on education. Saying that more is spent on education, the footnote concludes: "Besides, the expenditures for alcohol and tobacco consists in large part of taxes which are returned to society." Exasperating as this article is, it is well worth studying. Is this *really* what is thought—that education pays no return to society that can be evaluated in dollars and cents? Is the educational process comparable to the process of manufacturing steel, with output per man hours assessible? Educators do not think so, but other people must be convinced that the returns of education to the individual are returns to society creating tangible wealth for the country.

Thus, the second challenge concerns fiscal policy. Heretofore for the most part, educational administrations have concentrated upon budgets, as have school boards. Budgeting is a means of implementing school policy. Study yours for the last two years to see where the new funds have been put or where the cuts have been made. This tells you where the priorities are considered to be.

But budgeting is merely the allocation of available funds. Fiscal policies provide these funds. These policies are determined by the philosophy of education and public attitudes toward it. Questions like these reveal the issues: Do we believe education pays a return to society? Do we really believe in educating all the children, with their various levels of ability and kinds of interests? What grade levels constitute common school education? What are the purposes of high schools; of college preparation, vocational education, or of both? What has first call upon our money? How important is it to attract persons of high quality to teaching, and to retain them? When we have answered these questions we will be able to evolve sound fiscal policies. This time will come when the public has been given complete information and understands it. Information and understanding are the prelude to action.

The Third Challenge: Leadership

That day will be dependent in large part upon the way we meet the third challenge in education—the need for leadership. In leadership the view of the big picture is mandatory. Regardless of our concentration upon our own small acre, we must retain the image of the sweep and contour of the whole landscape as a necessary background.

Education needs leadership within its ranks for two purposes. The first and most obvious purpose is to provide direction to the educational process and to inspire creative endeavor on the part of each individual teacher. The second purpose is more general: to stimulate the confidence of the public so that it will accord to the profession of education the professional decisions regarding education that are now and will continue to be needed.

On the other hand, opportunities for leadership must be made available for teachers. The training, experience, and insights of counselors should have a strong leadership influence upon curriculum revisions, for example, and upon developments within the community to round out necessary resources for the school. To develop leadership qualities, dynamic and inventive personalities must be assisted to find scope for their talents. They must be encouraged to enlarge their fields of vision and to extend their responsibilities. Otherwise the periscope view is encouraged.

Conclusion

Such is the big picture of education as I see it—peopled with children and youth of diverse gifts and wide ranges of personal traits, but sharing individually and collectively dignity, worth, and supreme potential. I see in the picture gifted teachers and a supporting public. It is a picture however that is part of a bigger canvas—the canvas of our country in and of the world.

When I was a boy, on a farm in Maryland, we children used to enjoy the hand stereoptican picture cards, each with two views pasted side by side. We were entranced by the vitality and sense of movement we saw when we looked at these cards through the lens held up to our eyes.

It is my feeling that we can sense the vitality and movement and direction of the profession of education only as we view it in a stereo, bringing it into perspective with the picture of America. These two pictures are not separate and distinct. Each needs the other to provide a full vision of our present status and future direction. Just as pre-occupation with a detail of the canvas can obscure the total composition, so a view of the two dimensional surface can blind us to the true depth of field. Moreover, any fine picture conveys a sense of movement, of continuity with past and future. It is not unlike catching the expression of a placid, upturned face of a

child on a small camera. The viewer knows this is the captured moment, not the permanent pose. Nor is the picture the lasting reality. The reality is richer, more dynamic, more provocative than the picture. All a picture can do is to suggest a shape, a mood, relationships, and design. The impression is the viewer's, as is the interpretation. If beauty is in the eye of the beholder, so too is significance. We educators base our teaching upon our understanding of each individual's need for status, and we can never forget his necessity to find himself in a rich and rewarding world. I am positive that we must find the meaning of our total endeavor, if the potential impact of this endeavor is to be realized in the development of human worth. In this lies the integrity of education. This is the big picture.

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COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL ASSISTANTSHIPS AVAILABLE

Southern Illinois University is now accepting applications for Training Assistantships in the College Student Personnel Graduate studies Program for the 1960–1961 school year. The two-year program, leading to a master's degree in education, is directed toward the development of the generalist who will be prepared to work in various phases—counseling, group activities, residence halls, financial aids, fraternities, admissions—of college student personnel work. The program includes supervised experience and placement in a student personnel staff position in each of the two years and stresses principles and organization of student personnel services, administrative principles and practices, understanding of human behavior, and the context of higher education.

Information and applications may be obtained from Dennis L. Trueblood, Coordinator, College Student Personnel Graduate Studies Program, Department of Guidance, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois.

Study Behavior of Gifted Stereotype and Non-Stereotype College Students

GERALD A. GLADSTEIN

RECENTLY much attention has been focused upon the need for understanding gifted college students [*6, 8, 12, 13, 16, 17, 19*]. Although some efforts have been made to examine their non-intellectual characteristics [*6, 8*] there has not been very much research concerning their study habits (behavior). Thus far, the reported studies [*4, 14*] have not investigated the relationship between the personality structures and the study behavior of the gifted college student. The present research attempted to examine this problem by comparing the study activities of a sample of academically successful Sterotype and Non-sterotype gifted college students. Two questions were tested: (1) Do successful, gifted college students of different personality characteristics differ in their study activities and (2) Do successful, gifted Sterotype college students use study activities commensurate with their personality characteristics?

Procedure

Personality Types. The initial step was to identify college students of different personality dimensions. For this study the Stereotype (S) and Non-stereotype (N) personality types as identified and described by Stern [*18*] were used. Previous studies [*5, 18*] have indicated that these two personality types differ in their academic achievement. However, these investigations have not indicated how these students study in the process of gaining their respective levels of achievement.

For this study, students were selected from the 1954 freshman class (N = 376) of the University of Chicago and the 1955 freshman class (N = 909) of the Liberal Arts College of Syracuse University. Selection of a sample which consisted of S and N students was made by using the Inventory of Beliefs which has previously been validated for identifying these two personality types [*18*]. In each instance students who scored at the upper 16 per cent on the Stereotype scales were tentatively selected.[1] (Final selection also depended upon satisfying other criteria discussed below.) TABLE 1 compares the mean scores and the standard deviations for the 24 S and 42 N students who were finally selected as the investigation's sample. A low score on the Stereotype Scale shows agreement with the S syndrome. The mean scores of 43.25 for the S and 62.21 for the N students affirm the fact that these groups differed in this personality dimension. The difference of 18.96 was found to be significant at the 0.001 level of confidence when the two means were tested by using the Cochran and Cox *t test* when variances differ significantly [*3*]. The differences in standard deviations indicate that the S group was more heterogeneous than the N group.

Ability Level. After the students were identified by personality type, their scores on the ACE Psychological Examination, College Edition Forms 1948 and 1952, were used for selecting the gifted students. Total raw scores obtained on the 1948 and 1952 editions were converted to comparable scores by using equivalency tables presented in the ACE 1949 and 1952 Norm Bulletins. TABLE 1 shows the equivalency score means

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The author is indebted to his colleagues, Peter Apostolakos, Frank Hansen, Harvey Roazen, and Armas Tamminen, for their assistance in reading the manuscript and offering helpful suggestions.

[1] Preliminary selection of the Chicago students was also based upon their responses to the *Activities Index* which has been used to identify these types [*18*].

and standard deviations for the selected S and N groups. The mean scores of 131.50 and 132.30 indicate that both the S and N groups stood at the 84th percentile based on the college national norms and that the means did not differ significantly. This level of performance certainly shows that these students were far above average as measured by the ACE.

TABLE 1

Comparison of Personality, Mental Ability, and Academic Achievement of the S and N Students (S=24, N=42)

Variable	*Group*	*Mean Scores*	*S.D.*	*Difference in Means*	*t-Ratio Between Means*
Inventory of Beliefs (Stereotype Scale)	S	43.25	12.46	18.96	6.676*
	N	62.21	8.26		
ACE (Total Score)	S	131.50	21.01	0.80	0.057
	N	132.30	23.03		
Course Grade	S	3.09	0.41	0.05	0.147
	N	3.14	0.63		

* Significant at the 0.001 level.

Academic Achievement. The final criterion used for sample selection was level of academic achievement. The final grades of the course for which the student's study behavior was reported served as the achievement measure. However, if a student did not have at least an over-all "C" average for his freshman work he was eliminated from the investigation. TABLE 1 indicates that the average course grades for the S and N groups were almost identical, 3.09 and 3.14. Using the system of A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, D = 1, and F = 0, this means that both groups had slightly better than a B average.[2]

[2] Although the courses and grading systems at Chicago and Syracuse vary, for the purposes of this study only the comparison between the S and N students is made. Since an equal number of S and N students were selected from both schools and all courses, the above grade comparison seems legitimate.

Other Criteria. In addition to meeting the criteria of personality type, ability level, and achievement level, an attempt was made to equate the selected students for total grade average, number of courses taken, sex, age, and place of residence. Although this was not entirely possible when the students were grouped on the basis of these variables, statistical tests of differences among means showed no significant differences.[3]

Study Behavior. A specially constructed questionnaire was administered to the students to determine their study behavior. The *Study Activities Questionnaire* (SAQ) was developed by the author since there were no existing study activity instruments whose construction was based on personality dimensions. Items were constructed in line with the Stereotype syndrome as developed by Stern [*18*] for the following general topics: (1) Place and Time of Study; (2) Preparations During the Year; (3) Class Meetings; and (4) Examinations. Three independent judges familiar with this syndrome then keyed the items. By this method a Stereotype Study Model Scale consisting of 110 items was established. This provided the method for scoring the SAQ's for which total and part scores were obtained. The three items below illustrate the type of questions used. For each item the student indicated if he carried out the activity usually or almost always, frequently, sometimes, or rarely or never.

1. I did my studying at the same time of day.
2. I found that a plan or schedule for studying was necessary so as to keep my work organized and up to date.
3. I regarded study for the final exam as the time to get a thorough understanding of the theoretical ideas presented during the semester.

Results

An analysis of the responses by the S and N students was made by comparing their total scores and their part scale scores. TABLES 2 and 3 present the *t test* of means

[3] Data and analyses are presented in the author's dissertation [*7*].

TABLE 2

Comparison of SAQ Total Scores of the S and N Students (S = 24, N = 42)

Group	*Mean Scores*	*S.D.*	*Difference in Means*	*t-Ratio Between Means*
S	58.0	7.21	10.4	6.103*
N	47.6	8.40		

* Significant at the 0.001 level.

and standard deviations for these scores. The difference in means of 10.4 for the total test scores is statistically significant at the 0.001 level of confidence. With a mean score of 58.0 (out of a possible maximum of 110) it shows that the S students as a group did study more nearly like the hypothesized Stereotype Study Model than did the N students who had a mean score of 47.6.

Similar results for the four part topics are indicated in TABLE 3. For three of the four parts the S group scored significantly higher than did the N group. The greatest difference in means occurred for the response to the topic "Preparations During the Year." The students' activities regarding their "Place and Time of Study" showed the least differences. In each case, however, the scores point out that the two personality groups studied differently.

Another analysis of the students' responses was made by comparing the per cent of the S and N groups whose responses agreed with the keyed responses of the Stereotype Study Model scoring for each of the SAQ items. The personality group that showed the greater frequency of agreement with the item's keying was called the "favored" group. A frequency count was made of the number of items favored by each personality type. Out of the 110 items 79 or 71.8 per cent were favored by the S group, 29 or 26.4 per cent by the N students, and 2 or 1.8 per cent were even. This also indicates that the two groups studied differently and that a greater proportion of the S students studied in a predicted manner based upon their personality characteristics.

When Chi square tests of significance were made for the above item comparisons, 11 items showed statistical differences between the S and N students at the 0.01 or 0.05 level of confidence. In each case, the differences were in the predicted direction favoring the S group. TABLE 4 lists the 11 items. These are restricted to the students' activities while reading, class thoughts and participation, and final exam thoughts and behavior.

Discussion

The above findings indicate that the gifted students included in this investigation used different study behavior when they were grouped according to personality characteristics. In other words, it was not necessary for these equally bright students to use the same study activities to become academically successful. This finding suggests that there may be various study techniques which superior students can use to gain academic achievement. There seems to be some previous research evidence which supports this hypothesis [*4, 10, 14*]. Danskin reported in 1952 [*4*] that many of the

TABLE 3

Comparison of the SAQ Part Scores of the S and N Students (S = 24, N = 42)

Part	*Group*	*Mean Scores*	*S.D.*	*Difference in Means*	*t-Ratio Between Means*
Place and Time	S	7.7	2.10	0.6	1.770
	N	7.1	2.31		
Preparations during the year	S	17.9	3.30	4.5	4.792†
	N	13.4	3.44		
Class meetings	S	13.5	2.89	2.9	4.240†
	N	10.6	2.86		
Final exam	S	13.0	2.40	1.6	2.735*
	N	11.4	2.21		

* Significant at the 0.01 level.
† Significant at the 0.001 level.

TABLE 4

SAQ Items Showing Statistically Significant Differences Between the S and N Students

(S = 24, N = 42)

Item	Keyed Stereotype Response	Per cent indicated keyed Stereotype response: S Student	N Student	X^2
34 While doing reading became anxious and disturbed if had hard material	Always-frequently	50	20	5.54*
35 While doing reading found it hard to evaluate or criticize author	Always-frequently	50	7	13.63†
43 Looked upon essays as chance to explore abstract ideas of course	Sometimes-never	71	34	5.07*
52 Read other additional readings in order to improve understanding	Never	67	33	5.57*
63 My thoughts in class concerned with what instructor said, not students	Always-frequently	67	34	5.57*
66 My thoughts in class became confused when discussion too theoretical	Always-frequently	33	3	9.93†
71 In class I asked questions of instructor to get right answers	Always-frequently	88	53	6.82†
82 In class I took notes, etc., which I felt would help me do well on exams	Always-frequently	97	63	6.65†
83 In class I took notes, etc., of stimulating ideas to explore later	Sometimes-never	92	51	9.92†
103 Study for final exam important because grade could help or hinder vocational aims	Always-frequently	80	49	4.29*
111 For final exam memorized main points instructor and author made	Always-frequently	71	41	4.49*

* Significant at the 0.05 level.
† Significant at the 0.01 level.

"psychologically sound" study techniques were not used by superior students. He discovered, in fact, that there was a wide variety of methods used by these students.

Based upon the findings presented in other investigations of student study behavior, it is clear that average ability pupils also use diverse study activities [*1, 2, 9, 11*]. At the same time, however, many research studies have pointed out that academically successful pupils do differ in certain respects from the non-successful pupils [*1, 14*]. Thus, even though successful and non-successful students differ, it means that the successful students also *differ among themselves* in their study procedures.

The findings of this investigation suggest that one of the reasons for this variance in behavior is the personality structure of the student. Thus, the gifted S students used study activities which were quite similar to those expected from their personality syndrome.

If these findings are substantiated by further research, this would suggest that counselors working with gifted students should not expect them to use similar study activities. In fact, the counselor might be most helpful by encouraging these students to use techniques suitable to their personalities rather than attempting to force them into the mold of "good study habits."[4] Further

[4] Related to this point is a recent investigation by Newman [*15*] where he found that students who use their own study techniques did better on specific learning tasks than students who followed psychologically sound study techniques suggested by the teacher.

research to test this hypothesis is necessary before any conclusive statement can be made.

Summary

An investigation of the study behavior of gifted Stereotype and Non-stereotype college students was made to test two questions: Do successful, gifted college students of different personality characteristics differ in their study activities and (2) Do successful, gifted Stereotype college students use study activities commensurate with their personality characteristics? The Study Activities Questionnaire was administered to a sample of 24 S and 42 N equally gifted, successful University of Chicago and Syracuse University freshman students. Statistically significant differences were found between the study activities of the S and N students. The data also indicated that the study behavior of the S students was quite similar to that expected from their personality structure. It was then suggested that counselors should consider these findings when working with gifted students.

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MINIMUM CHANGE THERAPY

LEONA E. TYLER

I HAVE SOME misgivings about the problem we are considering today. Any attempt we make to limit the duration of counseling, though we may think of it as a purely quantitative change, may turn out to have large qualitative effects. One of our ground rules, so basic that we seldom even state it explicitly, is that a person is *worth* whatever amount of time and trouble it takes to help him. We do not measure concern and kindness in hours or dollars. It would be as though a mother should say to herself: "Let's see. I can afford to devote 10 years of my life primarily to the nurture of these children. That means that the total amount of time that each of them can claim is 10,000 hours." Instead of thinking in this fashion, a mother naturally assumes that she must give whatever the task demands, without rationing it. An increasing mass of evidence is showing that the optimal growth of a human being requires just this kind of unlimited commitment on somebody's part. Under favorable circumstances, a person has had enormous amounts of love and care devoted to him by the time he reaches maturity.

The experience of having someone really care about him is such an indispensable part of what counseling means for a client that we must be especially careful never to jeopardize it. It is for this reason that I am inclined to doubt the wisdom of setting arbitrary time limits. If what the client understands by the arrangements we make is: "You are worth spending 10 hours on, but no more," an experience he might otherwise have had simply will not occur. It has always seemed to me that there is a big difference psychologically, between limits that are inevitable and obviously necessary, such as those resulting from the end of a school term or the illness of the therapist and those that are arbitrary or unexplained.

However, after all this has been said, the fact remains that to prolong counseling contacts unnecessarily does not do a client any good and may even hamper his further development. And our own full schedules make it imperative that we try to avoid this type of error. Thus we do need to give some thought to the matter of how this can best be done.

Change or Utilization

My own approach to this and other counseling problems has been to attempt to clarify the nature of the task itself. Elsewhere during the last year I have tried to distinguish between two kinds of helping process. Therapy generally has as its goal personality *change;* counseling attempts to bring about the best possible *utilization* of what the person already has. It is a distinction similar to the one Tolman years ago introduced into learning theory, the difference between learning and performance.

The only trouble with simple, clearcut classifications like this is that they don't seem to fit a lot of the tasks and situations with which we are confronted. Certainly most of the work we do in facilitating occupational choices and educational decisions can be classified as *utilization* rather

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than as *change*. But what of the client with major or minor personality problems? Is the treatment we offer in such cases therapy or counseling? Is it perhaps really therapy, but called counseling in order to make it more palatable to him or to the community? It would not be so important what label we used, except that the ambiguity spreads out over our own thinking about what we call therapeutic counseling. And because we are not at all sure what we are trying to accomplish, we never know just when we are through.

What I have been questioning in my own mind more and more is the assumption that therapy should attempt to bring about as much personality change as possible. Could it be largely because of the enormous prestige psychoanalysis has acquired that we tend to assume that personality reorganization is the goal toward which we should strive? Is it really true that the therapy that produces the most changes is the best therapy? Would it not be possible to make the opposite assumption and deliberately set as our goal "minimum-change" therapy? This would be a kind of undertaking that would fit in well with the rest of the activities that go on under the name of counseling. We would try in each case to help the person discover some unblocked path in which he could move forward, develop his unique personality, and thus transcend rather than delve into the anxieties and conflicts in which he is now enmeshed.

I picture this process in terms of a change of *direction* rather than in terms of distances or amounts. The difficulties a client is experiencing can be thought of as indications that he is headed in a direction that is wrong for him or that he has at some former time made a wrong turn into a blind alley. All of this may have occurred without conscious awareness, of course. Counseling can create a situation in which a person may become aware of the directional shifts that are possible for him and in which he can be sure someone will see him through what may be a difficult "rotation of his axis." In pursuing the implications of this geometric analogy a little further I calculated that a directional shift of only 10 degrees makes a difference of 170 miles in where one comes out if his journey is 1,000 miles long—enough to make a considerable difference in terrain and landscape. Similarly, a relatively minor shift in the psychological direction in which a person is moving may well change his life considerably over a long period of years.

This is what I mean by *minimum-change* therapy. It has made it possible for me to see how in principle therapeutic counseling could be shortened considerably without making it any less valuable. It involves no great change in the procedures we use, but some aspects of the complex counseling situation need to be emphasized or even modified to some extent.

Emphasis on Strength

In the first place, it implies that more emphasis than one ordinarily finds be placed on *positive* diagnosis. By and large, our diagnostic thinking rests on concepts taken over from psychopathology. We try to ascertain where a person's weak spots are. Many psychologists, especially in recent years, have criticized this approach and advocated the diagnosis of strengths. In minimum-change therapy we pay no attention to personality weaknesses that are adequately controlled or neutralized. We all have areas like this. It is only the difficulties that are actually blocking the person's forward movement that we must attempt to deal with. And as suggested in the previous section, it is quite possible that these may be by-passed rather than attacked. A person who knows his real strengths and is clear about his basic values may be able to turn away from anxieties about aspects of his life that would be very difficult to change.

Though there is a widespread current interest in ego processes and positive personality traits, we do not as yet have tests we can count on for this sort of diagnostic task. We are more likely to become aware of a person's strengths by observing things he does than by asking him questions. Some of this meaningful behavior occurs in the interview situation itself. For example, when Mary Hart flashes a sudden smile as

she is struck with the amusing aspects of a particularly humiliating social experience she is recounting, we know that she possesses an asset that may be of considerable use to her. Call it a defense if you will, but in social situations and in personal emotional adaptation to the vicissitudes of life her ability to laugh at her own predicament will be a valuable asset. Other assets frequently showing up even in interviews where hostility, doubt, guilt, and anxiety are the main themes include moral principles of which the person is absolutely certain, demonstrated courage in the face of adversities, loyalty to those he loves. Whether or not it is advisable for the counselor to reflect or interpret such expressions at the time they occur is another question. But he can make a mental note of them.

We are more likely to become aware of a client's personality assets if we have some knowledge of his life outside the counseling room. In small or moderate-sized colleges, the counselor is likely to encounter his clients here or there—on the street, in the student union, at concerts, plays, or games. The growing practice of placing psychologists on the wards in mental hospitals serves the same purpose of permitting the kind of observation that positive diagnosis is based on. Conversations with a client's family or friends is another resource, but I am strongly of the opinion that it should not be used without the person's knowledge or permission. It is the characteristics he *knows* you have had a chance to observe—the things you can talk over together—that are grist for counseling's mill. In the last analysis, it is the client himself who must make the positive diagnosis we have been talking about if it is to be effective in his life.

Counseling Structure

A second point of emphasis in minimum-change therapy is the way in which the situation is structured for the client. We must take into account *his* expectations and goals as well as our own. To a person profoundly dissatisfied with the way his life has been going, the only thing that really looks good is change—complete change. What he may have read about psychotherapy in popular magazines or seen in movies leads him to expect or at least hope that some fundamental change will occur. True, the experience of countless therapists has shown that such a person will hang on to his unconscious defenses and fight every sort of change at every step of the way. But if anyone *tells* him at the beginning that small shifts of direction rather than larger changes in total pattern are to be expected he is likely to reject the whole undertaking. He thinks he wants to be made over.

It is in this connection that some explicit verbal distinction between counseling and therapy may be useful. Instead of trying to fight the person's wishful dreams about miraculous effects of therapy, I can simply explain that I am a counselor rather than a psychoanalyst and that my job is to help a person find out what his personality is like and decide how he can use the assets he has and get rid of the obstacles that are blocking his progress. If he accepts the situation on these terms, therapeutic counseling can proceed within the framework of the very broad general question "What kind of person are you?" Anything the person wishes to bring up can be considered, but we have not committed ourselves to an analysis of all his problems and innumerable childhood experiences out of which they may have arisen.

Necessary Support

A third essential feature of minimum-change therapy is the use of the counseling relationship to reduce the client's anxiety enough to allow him freedom to consider new possibilities. This, of course, is nothing new or at all peculiar to therapy of this type. It seems to be the one common denominator linking together all sorts of diverse procedures. I suppose many workers in the psychotherapeutic vineyard would classify the approach I have been presenting as just another variety of *supportive* therapy. I would have no quarrel at all with that idea were it not that we are so prone to discredit support and to think of it as a superficial palliative measure to be used when more powerful methods are

impractical. The idea of support should not be devalued in this way. Obviously by support I do not mean inspirational pep talks, shallow reassurance, or the encouragement of dependence. What I do mean is the act of lending one's own strength to the client for the period during which he needs it, so that he can be certain that his world is not going to fall apart if he moves. I have an idea that this is by far the most important thing we do for our clients, whatever our special theoretical predilections are. It is the crucial factor that enables his own development processes to operate.

I suspect that it would be possible in many cases to furnish this firm support much more economically than we now do if we were willing to use it without working for insight or drastic re-structuring of self-concepts. Once a client has established a new direction for himself, it may well be that regularly scheduled interview hours a month apart may be enough to maintain his courage and confidence. It is the quality of the relationship rather than the amount of time spent in the counselor's presence that constitutes support.

The Closing Phase

This brings us to the last point I wish to make about minimum-change therapy. Its intensive phase is brought to a close as soon as a clear direction has been established in the client's life, even though there are many emotional complexes still unexplored, many interpersonal problems still unsolved. Here again, as in the preliminary diagnosis, evidence from outside the interview room can be combined with what comes up during therapy sessions in judging whether a change of direction has been stabilized. A client may mention casually, without apparently attaching any importance to the remark, something that marks such a significant movement. Mr. Eldridge, for example, may speak of having had a long talk with his wife the night before, an action unprecedented in his previous experience. Gwen Riley, who has always been an anxious, perfectionistic procrastinator, may say that she has handed in, on time, an assigned paper for a course she is taking. Or the counselor may note the change in the incidental observation we discussed earlier. When he sees Bill Laraway having a coke with a girl, he knows that Bill has taken the first step toward overcoming the paralyzing shyness of which he has been complaining. A newspaper item stating that Mr. Bellingham has given a talk before the Active Club indicates to the counselor that this client's inferiority feelings are being surmounted. I know that, taken alone, such examples sound trivial. But remember, it is these ten-degree or even five-degree changes in direction that we are trying to facilitate. A small change in the direction of closer emotional ties with one's family or greater willingness to assume responsibility is the kind of shift that has a profound effect on later development. When it is clear that this shift has occurred it is time to think about the termination of formal therapy interviews.

One way of characterizing this kind of therapeutic counseling is to say that its basic premises come from the psychology of development and individual differences rather than from the psychology of adjustment. Its most fundamental assumption is that there are many different ways of living an individual life richly and well, and that it is natural for a person to continue to develop throughout his life in his own unique way. We work with nature instead of fighting or ignoring it.

I have often been struck by the fact that almost any personality trait one can think of may be either an asset or a liability, depending on how it is used. Touchy oversensitiveness to slights and insults is not really basically different from tact and social awareness. Aggression can lead to high achievement as well as murderous rage. Timidity and reasonable caution, compulsiveness and constructive orderliness are opposite sides of the same coins. Instead of bewailing our heredity and the mistakes that were made in bringing us up, perhaps we can learn to turn what we have to good account.

I have been thinking a good deal about

the way in which therapeutic counseling of this sort might be evaluated. It is an intriguing thought that the very failure to obtain clear evidence for personality change as a result of therapy may be construed as success rather than failure if we reverse our basic assumption—namely, that maximum change is what we are after. It may even be that Eysenck is right and that no kind of therapy produces change that is greater than that which time and the processes of nature would ultimately have brought about by themselves. The therapist may make a contribution only to the extent that he facilitates or speeds up this natural process. The kind of evaluation I should like to see would be designed to show whether our therapeutic efforts do in fact accomplish this facilitation, so that individuals find their way with less suffering and wasted time with therapy than without. And if so, we need to know what aspects of the help we give contribute most toward this end.

To come back at the end to the topic of this symposium, the point I have been trying to make is that we can best control the duration of counseling contacts by adopting consistently an attitude of respect for what each individual client now is and lending him support and understanding while he comes to terms with this unique self of his. Whether it takes him two hours or two hundred, if he succeeds the effort will have been very much worth while.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT SEMINAR HELD FOR DISABLED

A Leadership Development Seminar for disabled men and women was given by the General Education Division of New York University at the Federation of the Handicapped, New York City, beginning January 21. Limited to 24 handicapped men and women, the course concentrated on acquainting them with leadership in organizations like the Federation of the Handicapped. The seminar, consisting of six sessions, covered: (1) Elements of an effective membership organization; (2) The work of committees and responsibilities of committee members; (3) The responsibilities of committee chairmen; (4) Organizing for committee action; (5) Selecting effective leaders; and (6) Community responsibilities of membership organizations. The course was given by Henry T. Lipman, Assistant Director of the New York University Liberal Arts in Extension Program.

Counselor Intervention in Resistance and Ignorance

MILTON SCHWEBEL

TWO MISCARRIAGES of time in counseling are: first, the client breaks off before counseling is complete; second, the client remains in protracted counseling but shows no movement.

There are numerous reasons for these outcomes, involving the client, the counselor, and the interaction of the two. I will concentrate on two characteristics of the client that impede progress in counseling, namely, resistance and ignorance, and on methods of coping with them.

It may seem presumptuous to concern ourselves with too brief and too lengthy counseling when there is so much we do not understand about the "incurable" or "unmotivated" client. Yet these two may be more closely related than is apparent, for we may well find that some whom we label as untreatable or insufficiently motivated and beyond our help are those who terminate after brief or protracted counseling and, perhaps, because important aspects like resistance and ignorance have not been handled.

Resistance

The first thesis is that the counselor's ability to resolve resistance contributes to the client's involvement in counseling, to maintaining movement and the avoidance of lengthy plateaus. Resistance is broadly defined here as the defense against self-exploration and against exposure to self and especially to another person. The client resists because he is afraid to involve himself in a relationship, hence afraid to start counseling, to reveal certain feelings, thoughts, and experiences, to assume responsibility, to change. When he is at last free to verbalize the ideology that arouses his anxiety he will say something like one or more of the following: I bet you secretly laugh at me . . . . I can see you and your friends relishing this at a party . . . . I don't like to tell anyone I can't handle my own life . . . . I thought you'd take over if you found out I was so helpless, and I had enough of being bossed around . . . . If you knew some of the things about me you couldn't like me . . . . If I told you I'd really feel inferior.

Some of these inhibiting attitudes will crumble before the strength of the counselor's behavior without the need for verbalization, but others represent more deeply rooted concepts about self and others. While the goals of counseling may not require a general correction of these distortions, their recognition and change in the relationship itself are frequently necessary for movement to occur. By whatever means the counselor uses, the handling of resistance has first priority.

Experienced counselors are familiar with some of the defensive maneuvers of the resistant client. These are most overt when the client has been compelled to visit the counselor or been pressured into it. Yet many a client who has come voluntarily reacts as if he had been forced to come. We are too familiar with the client who as much as says, "Well here I am, do something"; or worse, "Here I am, now just try to do something, just try to change me." One of the most dramatic moments in the early stages occurs with clients like this when they discover that the counselor has no interest

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whatsoever in keeping them there, that they are free to leave, and that while the counselor would be glad to help them if they remained, he would not care one whit if they left; in fact, that he could not help them unless they wanted to be helped.

For example, a student is expelled from the classroom by the teacher and sent to the school counselor, who is confronted with one of the most difficult of tasks. The student enters the office with an air of defiance, prepared to counter anticipated agression with some of his own.

Counselor. Hello. Have a seat . . . What's brought you here?

Client. Don't ask me!

Counselor. Sounds as if you didn't want to come.

Client. I didn't. Miss Smith sent me.

Counselor. What for?

Client. Don't ask me.

Counselor. Well, what do you want me to do for you?

Client. Don't ask me.

Counselor. Then I can't help you.

Client. You mean I can go . . . you don't want to keep me here . . . to tell me anything?

Counselor. I don't want to keep you here, unless you want some help, and I can't help you unless there's some help *you* want, not what Miss Smith wants for you, but what you want.

Client. I don't need any help. But what'll I tell her when I go back?

Counselor. Well, why don't you tell her you don't think you need any help from me.

Client. She'll raise hell . . . . She always picks on me.

Counselor. You feel she does that?

Client. Almost every day something comes up. Sometimes it'll be because, etc., etc.

The first and the major wall of resistance has been cracked. The client begins to become involved, to trust, to expose, and to explore. The outcome of the process is, of course, unpredictable, but within the limitations of counseling by this counselor with this client in this institutional setting, counseling is now possible.

Marital counseling cases frequently confront the counselor with similar problems, with one mate exerting pressure on the other. The very pattern of inception often provides in microcosm the nature of the interrelationship. As an example, when Mrs. Doe phoned for an appointment, she pressured for an earlier one than was available. She hinted that her husband was responsible for their troubles and that the counselor should convince him of that.

The interview opened with a question directed at both of them as to the reason for their appointment. The husband was silent. The wife spoke at length, attributing their difficulties to him. When he spoke, his tone was such that one would use in pleading a case with a judge who was partial to the other side.

The counselor reflected the husband's reluctance to enter counseling and the wife's desire that he should, and he added the basic rule that a person could not be helped unless he wished it. This was the critical point. The husband began to express resentment about this visit and about previous psychologists to whom they had gone who, he felt, were "in cahoots with my wife." After three sessions together he arranged for individual counseling and expressed a feeling of trust. This was further strengthened after his wife phoned the counselor to ask how "things were going" and should she call regularly. She was told that she could learn about her husband's counseling only from him if he wished to discuss it with her. She reported this jolting conversation to her husband. To him it meant that he could depend on the counselor, that he could become involved, and that he could learn from one who would not manipulate him.

Thus far, we have considered only those aspects of resistance that refer to the inception of counseling. In each case the counselor is active in supporting the client's autonomy, so that the counselor is not perceived as an instrument of a coercing third party. In these cases the initial resistance is overt. It is more subtle but still influential even when the client himself has initiated counseling.

A young woman had come for help with

various problems of interpersonal relationships specifically with her parents and with men. The early stages had been stormy, with the mother attempting to use the counselor to disrupt her daughter's relationship with a man. At this session she talked about intellectual matters, paused frequently, and seemingly irrelevantly commented that a man disapproved of a particular book. The counselor indicated that she seemed to be having difficulty in talking and asked if there was something she did not want to say. She burst into tears and hesitantly revealed that she had been thinking of some things in her past that she could not discuss although they were on her mind. If she talked about these she expected the counselor would think her a fool. It was bad enough to feel insignificant with him and with other "men of position," but to relate these thoughts would make her feel even smaller.

The thoughts that she wanted to hide were of little importance now compared to her self-regard in relationship to men and specifically now to the counselor. Handling this resistance brought us to a vital area.

This phenomenon is not limited to problems symptomatic of interpersonal difficulties. A high school junior was referred for help in connection with his poor school record. He discussed his teachers, his school, his homework, his friends, and the then Brooklyn Dodgers, but scrupulously avoided his family. Only when this was pointed out to him several times did he say tearfully that he felt it would be disloyal to talk about them. While working through this resistance he casually mentioned that as a stepson he could not expect to go to college. Exploration of this misconception and others related to it became the core of the counseling. He felt a competition with his step-brothers, but one that he believed he must lose.

Since competitiveness—very often hostile in nature—is so much a characteristic of our culture, it plays a part in large numbers of our problems. This is true in educational and vocational cases involving choice and performance as well as those more patently interpersonal. A hidden factor is in measuring of self against a sibling or parent and finding one's self wanting or finding one's self superior and fearing to reveal this. But while these are important dynamics they often remain suppressed, for the client has been taught that to envy and to want to surpass a sibling or a parent is sinful or at least not nice. Thus the very determinants of conflict can remain hidden, with the communications in counseling limited to empty words. There seems to be no substitute for the piercing of this armor of resistance when it makes the professional relationship a sterile one.

Resistance, as it is encountered in counseling, can be conceptualized as a problem in interpersonal relations. The client is confronted with another human being and he must react in some fashion. If he has learned that there are painful consequences to revealing himself, then he must carefully delimit his responses. His reaction to counseling depends then on his expectations of the consequences of performing the necessary tasks of the client.

The various investigations of the correlates of success or failure, of continuing or terminating in counseling and therapy may well be separating the high and low resisters. For example, Taulbee [5] found relationships between certain personality variables and continuation in psychotherapy. Among the differences between them, the early terminaters were more defensive than the continuers and also less like normal persons on Rorschach measures than the continuers. Defensiveness increases the difficulty of the counseling task and suggests the possible need for focusing on the resistance to involvement. Appropriate research might well be directed to an investigation of techniques of resolving the resistance for this might be one key in the search for increased counseling effectiveness.

If resistance is a product of social learning we would expect that different cultural groups would reveal differences in their participation. A recent study by Korobow [2] found college men more resistant to counseling than college women. The investigator interpreted this result as being due to the concepts of masculinity in our culture,

where seeking help and revealing feelings are regarded as qualities of the so-called weaker sex.

Perhaps the reported tendency of persons from lower socio-economic classes to have a higher percentage of early terminators that the upper groups is also related to resistance, in this case possibly because of the greater defensiveness between persons who are unlike in many significant attributes [*1, 4*].

Need for Information

The second thesis of this paper is that the counselor's ability to educate and re-educate the client is a factor in the duration of counseling, speeding the process and avoiding unnecessary plateaus. By education is meant providing the client with information, facts of life, if you like, that are not available to him and are necessary in the achievement of his goals. For example, a man of 30, intellectually and professionally superior, but at early adolescence in his socio-sexual development, seeks help in his relationships with women. He shows abyssmal ignorance about almost all areas of relationships. When relevant, they are explained to him to provide him with what he should have learned years before. The presentation of these facts do not miraculously transform a detached individual into a great lover but they do achieve qualitative change upon which further growth can be built. There is no way of separating the facts from the act of interest in conveying them to him, nor of separating both of these from other aspects of the counseling.

A wife who seems genuinely interested in saving her marriage is on the verge of driving her husband to the divorce court by certain aspects of her behavior. While she believes she is only asserting her independence she is told that most men would react as her husband did, that wives just don't do such things without arousing antagonism. She ceased the behavior, simultaneously exploring it, only to discover a similar pattern prior to her marriage.

An insecure husband who complains about arguments that go on "half the time" soon discovers that they usually start about a week before his wife's menstrual period and continue through the first day after. He is told that many women are more sensitive, irritable, and in need of support at that time. His own underlying problem of insecurity is not resolved but his relationship with his wife is improved as he understands that she is not rejecting him and he is able to reach out to her.

A sobbing young adolescent, upset over his stepfather's threat to leave his mother and over his mother's financial irresponsibility, is reassured that he would not be penniless or alone, that the clinic to which he was going and the counselor would continue to help him.

It must be clear that this process of education is not academic, nor does it constitute advice or reassurance. It represents an attempt at changing the ideological structure of the client. Human behavior is influenced by ideology (ideas, concepts, attitudes), and no system of counseling or analysis, not even one that gives pre-eminence to instinctual impulses as determinants of behavior, will differ on this point. To be anxious requires that one be anxious about something even if the client be unaware of the nature of the something. To feel a pervasive sense of inferiority means that one has come to compare one's self unfavorably with someone, perhaps a child with an adult, and continues to see himself in this unfavorable competitive situation even if he is unaware of this. In these situations there are "ideas" behind the present experience of anxiety and inferiority, and these ideas must be recognized and changed. Now the same holds true for ideas of less personal involvement, less deeply rooted, the non-self concepts such as those about jobs, work, marriage. These too determine behavior and arouse effect, and if they can be more easily corrected than the other and by the counselor's active intervention, all the better. This is what happens when the counselor conveys the appropriate "facts of life." For example, it was important for a young college student who regarded marriage as the end of any hope for happiness, to learn that the only

marriage she had seen—the miserable life of her parents—was not a complete nor accurate picture.

Perhaps it will be said that this information does not alter basic underlying processes. Surely this was so in therapeutic treatment of a 15-year-old boy who had to be told frequently that sex was not painful and not performed in a hospital under anesthetics. This brought important temporary relief to him, but it was only a minor phase of his treatment. There are other cases where the re-educative process does play a key role. A nine-year-old boy was seriously under-achieving. The highly immature and uncontrolled behavior of the boy was matched by the mother's inability to exercise control over him although she had done so with the daughter. The mother was told that her extreme permissiveness was undesirable for him. Her reluctance to discipline him was explored. She worked so hard at changing her behavior—almost in the spirit of gritting her teeth and doing a difficult task—that his performance changed before it was possible for her to get even a first awareness that she was reacting to her son, in part at least, as she had to an envied younger brother.

The counselor must judge whether the ignorance of a client represents an autonomous behavior area which is amenable to change by means of direct information or whether it is the manifestation of a deeply rooted dynamic, impermeable to the facts of life. This is not to suggest that the untimely profferring of facts will harm the client or the relationship, except insofar as the counselor is insensitive to evidence of its inappropriateness. Obviously, the use of re-educative techniques as well as the handling of resistance can occur only after the client has communicated resistance and ignorance, and this in turn pre-supposes a qualitative relationship and climate.

It has often been said that the counselor must not play God. In his defense against that role, however, he ought not refrain from sharing with the client his store of knowledge of behavior. Even if it should be possible for the client to learn some of this independently there seems to be no advantage in protracting counseling in order to do homage to a counseling form, so long as the counseling purpose can be achieved.

It may seem superfluous to assert that counseling and psychotherapy are practiced for the sake of the client. Yet this must be emphasized whenever the evaluation of a process is considered. Otherwise the danger exists that it will be measured in terms of its consistency with the principles of a particular system of counseling rather than its efficacy in helping the client.

Different systems reflect differences among counselors and perhaps developed as ways of accommodating to variations in personality and interpersonal values of the counselors. The systems rationalize professional behavior. To the client it matters little how two orientations differ so long as the purpose of counseling has been achieved and at relatively little difference in anxiety, time, or cost. This demands that evaluative criteria be in terms of outcomes, *i.e.*, client change and not in terms of some assumed counselor virtues. The fresh eye of the scientist leads him to question all principles and practices. Before this iconoclast not even the virtues of "acceptance, permissiveness, etc." may stand unquestioned. As Thomas Paine wrote in his introduction to *Common Sense*, " . . . a long habit of not thinking a thing wrong, gives it a superficial appearance of being right . . . . "

The handling of resistance comes smack up against accepted practice in our profession. On the one hand, some of us are dominated by a theoretical approach that rejects active intervention in interpreting resistance to the counseling process, to responsibility, or to interpersonal involvement, while others are committed to practices that satisfy the client's security needs for passivity and dependence.

Some persons suffering from the variety of human afflictions that bring them for help have said, "I'd do anything to change this, even stand on my head." This seems an unlikely technique but not even this should be rejected summarily if there is

logical or empirical evidence of its utility.

In the era of crash programs, concerted research attack in a single sector seems very appropriate. The area of resistance seems to offer the possibilities of qualitative change in achievement with the seemingly unmotivated, the early terminators, and the unimproved. Mick's recent study [3] which gives partial support to the hypothesis that resistance is a function of patient variables offers a good starting point.

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STS PROJECT RECEIVES $150,000 CARNEGIE GRANT

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (NCA) has received a grant of $150,000 from the Carnegie Corporation of New York to continue its Project on the Guidance and Motivation of Superior and Talented Students. Designed to identify superior and talented students in high school, to encourage them to perform well in academically demanding courses, and to motivate them to continue their education beyond high school, the STS Project was launched in March, 1958, with a grant of $174,000 from the Carnegie Corporation.

"In the 18 months since the program started," states William R. Ross, President of NCA, "much has been done. Some 27,000 students in the project schools have been identified as superior and talented. By definition they are in the top quarter nationally on tests of mental abilities and other selected criteria." One-week summer workshops have been conducted for administrators and counselors from project schools at the universities of Michigan, Northwestern, Oklahoma, Minnesota, Colorado, Ohio State, Chicago, Omaha, Missouri, and Wyoming; and a six-week training institute was also held at Northwestern University for 100 counselors from these schools.

Client Problems and Duration of Counseling

BARBARA NACHMANN

BEFORE PROCEEDING to the diagnostic considerations which are the main concern of this paper, it seems necessary to specify the variations of meaning which "controlling the duration of counseling contact" may have.

First, by duration we may mean either the number of times we see the client or the span of time over which these contacts are spread. Obviously, five hours in one week, five hours in five weeks, and five hours scattered across a year's time are not equivalents, nor is a six months' period in which there are a dozen contacts the equivalent of six months which encompasses 120 contact hours. If an agency budget afforded, for example, a maximum of 15 hours per client, there are diagnostic considerations which would drastically alter from one client to the next the way in which this time could be most advantageously distributed.

A second complexity of meaning lies in the term "control." Control can be taken to mean "restrain"—"shorten"—since the desire to accomplish the most in the least possible time is a pressure under which most of us constantly labor. Control, however, equally well lends itself to the Rankian meaning of "set a specified limit upon" with the aim not primarily of economy of time but of utilizing the special therapeutic effects which working within such a framework may have.

If we are attempting to control duration in the sense of "make shorter" there is an additional question of whether we do so because we see special diagnostic or methodological circumstances which would make us hope to accomplish a given counseling task in a shorter time than ordinarily or because there are diagnostic or other circumstances that would make it advisable to curtail the task which we undertake.

In discussing the diagnostic issues I shall range across all of these possible meanings.

The diagnostic considerations fall into two convenient though not altogether independent categories: diagnosis of the person and diagnosis of the problem.

Implications in Diagnosis

It appears to me that the conventional psychopathological diagnoses are relevant to the problem of duration of contact because they embody personality characteristics which either may demand slow and plodding growth or permit rapid, drastic steps.

The strength of the ego, the level of anxiety, the type and toughness of defences employed, the impulses defended against, the intellectual level, the age, the urgency felt, all these and other items in the diagnostic picture of the client help to determine what we can accomplish in how much time.

The more normal or mature, the more intelligent, the stronger the ego, the less rigid the defences, the better is one able to profit from either short or long contact. Such a person is more capable of utilizing a deep probing, wide-ranging, time-consuming therapy. Likewise, he is better able to

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cope with and in less danger of suffering injury from the sudden and painful confrontations, the precipitous dealings with transference, and the abrupt terminations which short contacts are likely to entail.

The obsessive compulsive, whose defences are multiple and stubborn and for whom the mismanagement of time is likely to be a major symptom, is the person least amenable to short cuts but the one for whom the early setting of a specific termination date is most indicated.

It is my suspicion that for him, until the ending date is set by the counselor, the beginning date is never set by the client. Further, there is the danger that unless the counselor has settled this issue in his own mind and made it clear to the client, he will be caught up in a perpetual indecision whether to fall into the trap of applying the pressures the client begs for and resents, or the trap of allowing him to procrastinate interminably with the counseling process itself.

The acute, transitory problem in the relatively healthy, well-motivated person is no doubt the prototype of the successful short-term counseling contact and in fact of "counseling" as it is differentiated from other types of therapy.

Certain circumscribed hysterical symptoms in an otherwise intact personality lend themselves to middle-length contacts which permit the tracing back of the symptom to its unconscious source but not any major remodeling of the total personality.

The diagnosis of schizophrenia or conditions which approach it in weakness of ego, primitiveness of development, and precariousness of defences carries with it some readily apparent implications that place it at one extreme or the other of the continuum of length of contact. The schizophrenic or schizoid individual may be the person for whom the counselor he sees once a month or once every six months for years on end is the stabilizing influence that enables him to avoid hospitalization or to complete his education or to remain a productive worker. On the other hand, he may be the person whose diagnosis warns the counselor to cut short the contact and turn aside the inclination to spill forth disturbing fantasies lest a marginal adjustment be turned into an acute psychosis.

A Second Set of Determinants

In taking into the diagnostic picture not only the type of person we are dealing with but the nature of the problem about which he requests help, we are supplying ourselves with another set of determinants of length of contact.

One way of catagorizing problems is with regard to whether their solution involves impulse control, impulse expression, or impulse recognition. I believe I have ordered them in terms of decreasing length of counseling contact likely to be required. The student whose impulses are undisciplined, who cannot endure the delay of gratification that concentrated study and consistent work requires, cannot be helped by a few counseling sessions to change this state of affairs. It will happen only by means of a long slow process of maturing which counseling can facilitate but not greatly condense.

The shy, inhibited student who cannot make dates or assert himself in the classroom likewise is not going to be transformed over-night by counseling or therapy. I would judge that the task might be somewhat briefer and easier than its converse, however.

The bringing to awareness of disguised and disturbing impulses is, it seems to me, one of the kinds of problems at which the college counselor with a limited amount of time at his disposal can produce the most tangible and useful results. If one can make correctly the judgment that behind a described piece of behavior lies an unconscious contrary intent, then out of eight or ten or twelve sessions of painstaking examination of the behavior can arise some discoveries which once having been made cannot be unmade.

The recognition that a rebellious defiance of parents conceals the wish to provoke them into a display of great concern and the half-desire to remain dependent on them; the discovery that the self-sacrificing compliance with father's plan that one fol-

low in his career is being carried out in a way calculated to embarrass and defeat the father—that behind the admiration and subservience lies bitter resentment; or the discovery that an array of practical barriers in the way of a marriage or a professional venture easily dissolve and leave only a residue of internal fears; such recognitions of hitherto disguised impulses do not, to be sure, solve problems or change personalities. They do insure that the impulse in question will henceforth have to be dealt with on a more direct and conscious level, and the shift from indirect to direct, from unconscious to conscious, means generally a release of tied-up energy and the adoption of a less wasteful way of operating.

At the extreme of brevity, there are the single hours and even the 15 minute intake interviews where genuine, even decisive, therapeutic interaction takes place.

This most frequently occurs when the client comes to counseling at some point of decision in his life, presenting it as almost a *fait accompli* and where one's first diagnostic reaction is "there is something wrong with this." The further diagnostic judgments here do not determine the length of contact—that has already been determined by external circumstance—but it does determine what is to be done in the single interview.

One may judge that the chances of effecting any change are so slight or the dangers in it so great that one can only do nothing or say what the client wants to hear. Or, having arrived in the client's life at the strategic moment and having assessed the balance of forces within him correctly, one may judge that intervention is justified. This need not involve any unsolicited probing into his motives but simply a refusing to be swept along by the momentum of his plans and the conviction with which they are presented. By being unbendingly realistic in the face of his rationalizations and the discrepancies in his reasoning (even when it makes one feel most ungentle to do so) one may prevent him from taking some catastrophic step or set in motion a whole new development in his life.

I should like finally to attempt to place the diagnostic considerations within the context of other factors that influence length of contact. If we visualize the course of the counseling contact as a curve drawn with number of contacts on one axis and amount of progress, change movement, or what have you on the other, then it seems to me that the diagnostic considerations together with the techniques and the countertransference factors, the diagnoses of the counselor if you will, determine the shape of the curve. The obsessive compulsive is at one extreme with a long slow painful period, or several of them, where it appears that nothing happens, and at last a sudden upward movement when all one's endless patience begins to pay off. At the other extreme is the hysteric and the near normal with a circumscribed problem in whom with very little preliminary effort sudden swift changes can occur.

Since in one sense this curve of development extends for the entire lifetime of the client, the length, and to some extent the slope, of that part of it which we think of as the course of counseling is determined by what part of it we happen to cut off. It is determined by the point at which the counselor steps into the picture, how much of the therapeutic work the client has already accomplished before he arrives at one's office and at what point one leaves him to proceed on his own, or such accidental factors as at what point he leaves town, graduates, gets drafted, etc.

An unflattering thought with which to conclude is that perhaps some of our proudest examples of short-term counseling spring simply from having had the luck to be in the right place at the right time, and we may more charitably add, having had the wits to realize it.

A Twenty-Seven Year Follow-up On Job Satisfaction of Employed Adults

ROBERT HOPPOCK

DOES JOB satisfaction increase or decrease with age?

Are the largest gains in satisfaction enjoyed by those who change jobs or by those who do not?

Do the best satisfied persons continue to be the best satisfied, or do they change places with others as the years go by?

To find some answers to these questions we have compared the job satisfaction of the same group of employed adults as they reported it in 1932–1933, in 1935–1936, and in 1959.

Procedure

The report of the first inquiry was published in 1935 as a part of the author's doctoral dissertation [*1*]. There were 40 persons in the original group. By 1959, 10 of these had died, three had retired, one could not be traced. Of the other 26, three did not respond. The remaining 23 answered the same questions they had answered approximately a quarter century earlier.

To trace 39 of 40 persons after 27 years would usually be impossible. We were able to do so only because all of them were personal acquaintances who lived in or near the author's hometown, and because we had the indispensable help of Mildred M. Smith who was able to locate the missing persons through relatives and friends.

The measuring instrument used in 1959 was the author's Job Satisfaction Inquiry Blank No. 5 [*1, p. 243*]. Those used earlier were comparable forms identified as Blanks No. 1 and 10. Most of the items on the three forms are identical. These blanks yield a job satisfaction score which can range from 4 to 28. To obtain a score of 4 a person would have to endorse these statements regarding his job:

I hate it.
I never feel satisfied with it.
I would quit this job at once if I could get anything else to do.
No one dislikes his job more than I dislike mine.

At the other extreme, a score of 28 could be obtained only by endorsing all of these statements:

I love it.
I feel satisfied with it all of the time.
I would not exchange my job for any other.
No one likes his job better than I like mine.

The middle score of 16 could be obtained by several combinations of statements, which usually approximate the following:

I am indifferent to it.
I feel satisfied with it about half of the time.
I would like to exchange my present job for another job in the same line of work.
I like my job about as well as most people like theirs.

The scores of the 23 persons in 1932–1933, 1935–1936, and 1959 are reported in TABLE 1. In two cases no score is available for 1932–1933. In two other cases there is no score for 1935–1936. In all other cases, scores are reported for all three periods. The comparisons which follow are all between the 1932–1933 and the 1959 scores, except as otherwise noted. To preserve anonymity, individuals are identified only by case numbers.

Results

Job satisfaction scores increased in 17 of the 23 cases, decreased in only 2. In 3 cases the 1959 score was between the two earlier scores. In one case there was no change. All cases are included in this summary.

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All substantial changes, of 4 points or more, indicated increased satisfaction. There were 10 such substantial changes, among which were some for whom only one earlier score is available.

The largest increases in satisfaction were achieved by persons who changed jobs. The largest single gain was 13 points, made by Number 11, who in 1930 had been the young assistant to the superintendent of a factory. In 1932 the factory closed and Number 11 took the only remaining job—night watchman. His job satisfaction score at that time was 10. By 1935 he had become secretary to the president of the state senate. His satisfaction score increased to 19. In 1959 he was vice-president and general manager of one division of a corporation, with a job satisfaction score of 23.

The changes in his job satisfaction are reflected in the following changes in the statements which he checked on the Job Satisfaction Blanks:

1932 I dislike it.
1935 I am enthusiastic about it.
1959 I am enthusiastic about it.

1932 I never feel satisfied with it.
1935 I feel satisfied with it most of the time.
1959 I feel satisfied with it all of the time.

1932 I would like to change both my job and my occupation.
1935 I would like to change both my job and my occupation.
1959 I am not eager to change my job but I would do so if I could get a better job.

1932 I do not know how I compare with other people.
1935 I like my job about as well as most people like theirs.
1959 I like my job better than most people like theirs.

The next largest gain was 11 points, made by Number 27, a teacher. In 1932 her job satisfaction score was 21. Between then and 1935, a new board of education made drastic cuts in the curriculum, the staff, and the teachers' salaries. Several salaries were reduced below the legal minimum established by state law. In 1935, Number 27's job satisfaction score had dropped from 21 to 11. As president of the local teachers' association she led a fight against the board and succeeded in raising salaries to the legal minimum. Later she resigned to accept a position with the state department of education. Promotions followed within the department. Her job satisfaction score in 1959 had risen from 11 to 22.

The changes in her job satisfaction are reflected in the following changes in the statements which she checked on the Job Satisfaction Blanks:

1932 I like it.
1935 I am indifferent to it.
1959 I am enthusiastic about it.

1932 I feel satisfied with it most of the time.
1935 I feel satisfied with it occasionally.
1959 I feel satisfied with it most of the time.

1932 I am not eager to change my job but I would do so if I could get a better job.
1935 I would quit this job at once if I could get anything else to do.
1959 I am not eager to change my job but I would do so if I could get a better job.

TABLE 1

Job Satisfaction Scores

Case	*1932–1933*	*1935–1936*	*1959*	*Substantial Differences*
3	..	16	21	5
4	19	..	27	8
8	22	22	23	..
10	25	26	24	..
11	10	19	23	13
12	21	21	25	4
15	15	16	20	5
17	..	20	25	5
18	22	23	26	4
19	15	19	20	5
20	24	22	24	..
21	22	21	24	..
22	22	24	25	..
23	24	22	21	..
24	20	20	22	..
25	20	20	20	..
27	21	11	22	11
28	24	21	22	..
29	22	21	28	7
32	23	..	25	..
37	22	25	24	..
38	20	21	23	..
40	21	23	22	..

1932 I do not know how I compare with other people.

1935 I dislike my job more than most people dislike theirs.

1959 I like my job better than most people like theirs.

The third largest gain of 8 points was made by Number 4. In 1932 at the age of 22 he was a grocery truck driver and clerk with a job satisfaction score of 19. In 1959 he was supervisor of the shipping and traffic department of a rapidly growing manufacturing company of 600 employees. His 1959 job satisfaction score was 27.

In fourth place is Number 29 with a gain of 7 points. In 1932 and 1935 he was the owner of a garage and automobile sales agency. His scores then were 22 and 21. Asked what he disliked most about his job at that time, his first response on both occasions was "Finances." Eventually the business succumbed to financial difficulties. After a series of other jobs and some periods of illness and unemployment, Number 29 suffered a stroke and did not work for four and a half years. He was then employed as watchman on a building construction project, just three weeks before our 1959 inquiry, at which time he made the highest possible job satisfaction score: 28.

Thus the highest and the lowest satisfaction scores in our inquiry were both made by watchmen—one of them a young man temporarily halted on his way up, the other by a man past 60 who was happy to be working again after a long illness.

In rank order of job satisfaction there were many individual changes, but a general tendency to remain in the same half of the distribution.

Of the four persons with the highest job satisfaction scores in 1932–1933, two had dropped to near the middle and two to near the bottom of the list by 1959. However, because of the general increase of scores in the interim, no one of these persons dropped more than 3 points in his own score.

Of the three persons at the bottom of the list in 1932–1933, two were still at the bottom in 1959, despite increases of 5 points in each score. The third person jumped to near the middle of the list.

Of the three highest in 1959, two came from near the middle and one from near the bottom of the 1932–1933 scores.

Of the three at the bottom in 1959, all were near the bottom in 1932–1933.

Of 10 cases above the median in 1932–1933 only 2 were below the median in 1959. Of 10 cases below the median in 1932–1933, only 2 were above the median in 1959.

Comment

The participants in 1959 were invited to add comments on the back of the Job Satisfaction Blank. Several did. One of the most interesting and penetrating came from a high school teacher of English, whose relatively high score of 22 has changed only one point in 27 years. His comment follows:

"I am still in this first job that I have held since 1930. I think I have been content to stay because over the years I have developed a number of part-time activities which supplement my income considerably. These are:

"1. Making and scoring civil service examinations in English. This pays well and is fascinating work besides.

"2. Publicity promotion and ghost writing for political candidates. This I fell into by accident; I'm pretty good at .. and could do a great deal more with it if I wanted to. But I don't like it particularly: it has no security, isn't useful work.

"3. I have several other ways of making a buck, too: I'm in charge of all admissions to the local county fair; I do programs for the local radio station and for nearby service and womens' clubs; I edited a weekly newspaper for nearly a year; I've been an actor in a couple of documentary films for the government.

"Since most of this supplementary income would be lost if I moved, I can't consider another teaching job unless it pays $3,000 more a year than I'm getting now, and there aren't many jobs like that in high schools. Administration I am unsuited for; college teaching is a possible future, but I have no doctorate.

"There is a very real possibility that all of the above is so much eyewash, and that

the real reason I like it here is that I am allowed absolute freedom to do as I please. I am not very cooperative, don't play on a team very well, and here I am allowed to teach what I please as I please. This may be rotten educational organization, but it suits me exactly!"

Conclusions

Twenty-three cases do not provide an adequate basis for conclusions about a much larger population. They may, however, demonstrate that what happened in these cases can happen. And they may lead to provocative speculation.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first longitudinal study in which the job satisfaction of the same persons could be compared at intervals of 24 and 27 years. It confirms the results of earlier studies, which compared the satisfaction of different persons of different ages, and found the older persons better satisfied.[1] Neither type of study is perfect. The comparison of different persons of different ages could be contaminated by errors of sampling and by differences in the background of persons a generation apart. The comparison of the same persons at different times could be affected by the great change in economic conditions from the depression of 1932 to the prosperity of 1959. When the two types of studies produce the same results, we may conclude with more confidence that there is some kind of positive relationship between job satisfaction and age. So far as job satisfaction is concerned, there appears to be no need for most of us to be afraid of growing older.

Some interesting speculation is provoked by the evidence that the greatest increases in job satisfaction were achieved by those who changed jobs. There are strong indications in the case histories that changes in jobs did change job satisfaction promptly and in both directions.

What does this evidence do to the frequently expressed belief that job satisfaction is determined by the over-all emotional adjustment of the individual and not by the job he holds? How does it affect the belief that the dissatisfied person can achieve satisfaction only by changing himself through therapy?

To the best of the author's knowledge, only one of the 23 persons in this study was ever exposed to psychotherapy or to counseling psychology. The author has known most of them for close to a lifetime and has seen no evidence that their emotional adjustment either improved or needed to. Yet some of them moved through a wide range of job satisfaction, in close correlation with wide changes in their jobs. Could it be that the person who dislikes his job needs to change his job more than he needs to change himself?

[1] See series of articles by H. Alan Robinson and others which appeared in the following issues of *Occupations:* April, 1938; October, 1940; February, 1943; April, 1945; April, 1948; December, 1948; December, 1949; October, 1950; May, 1951; May, 1952. More recent summaries will be found in the following issues of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal:* September, 1953; September, 1954; May, 1955; May, 1956; September, 1957; September, 1958; May, 1959.

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A Counselor's Year in Review

MARY E. GILBERT

ONE OF THE MOST thrilling of experiences is the discovery of a new idea. With the passing of time, however, this new perspective often gets a little tarnished. Its uniqueness slowly acquires a disillusioning banality. Yet, this perspective could be stimulating to another who meets it for the first time. It is for this reason that the writer has the temerity to discuss the principles which she developed after a year's experience as a guidance counselor in a school where guidance was relatively new. It is hoped that other guidance counselors starting out in a new job may find here some helpful ideas. At the very least, the reader may find in the writer a kindred spirit.

The following discussion is essentially an end-of-year review by the guidance counselor. She had approached her new position with one basic conviction: effective guidance is an integral part of the school. During the school year the counselor kept a record of her reactions and observations which were related to this basic conviction. She believed that a guidance department which carries on its work apart from the rest of the school limits its effect on the life of the school. By seeking to pervade the life of the school, it can extend its influence in such a way that it helps to develop an environment in which each student is free to learn as much as possible. In the long run, it may then be of greater service to more people.

At the end of the year, the counselor reviewed her written observations and was able to present six principles. For purposes of organization, each principle is stated, then followed by observations recorded during the year which seem appropriate to the principle. Each principle and set of quoted observations are followed by a brief discussion.

Principle 1: Each school needs to develop its own guidance program.

The seventh graders are coming from several different elementary schools so that the teachers feel a special effort should be made to integrate the different groups.

When I ask students why they sign up for subjects they don't want to take, the usual answer is, "There isn't anything else to take," or "They say I have to take it for college."

At lunch today, some of the teachers asked me if the guidance department plans to give as many tests as have been given before.

Open House last night was attended by several thousand people. It was encouraging to note the genuine interest with which parents toured the building and met teachers.

A good guidance program for one school may not be a good guidance program for another school. If the guidance program is to be an integral part of a school, it should be developed in accordance with the characteristics and needs of that school.

It is therefore important that the guidance worker know the school situation and the community from which the school draws its students. As the guidance worker gives tests, counsels with students, listens to teachers, and meets with parents, he begins to know the school and to see ways in which these and other activities specific to a guidance program may contribute to the purposes and needs of the school.

As he becomes acquainted with school and community, the guidance worker may become aware of factors which make his

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This article is adapted from material in the author's unpublished doctoral dissertation, "Developing a Guidance Program: A Counselor's First Year in a New Situation," Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.

work difficult—negative attitutes of teachers toward guidance, restrictive school schedules, conflicting demands on overloaded teachers, or lack of community agencies. He may become aware of other factors which make his work easier—an understanding administration, teachers who want to help, a responsive student body, or interested parents. He can then work within the limits of the restricting factors, hoping eventually to change some of them, as he builds on the positive factors.

Principle 2: Teachers need to be active in and concerned with the guidance program.

I find that in many instances the teachers know the families and the difficulties the family has. However, the knowledge does not always contribute to better understanding of the child or better teaching.

An English teacher said today that he does not think a teacher can be concerned with the emotional problems of his students. His job is to teach.

A new teacher indicated that her experience in homeroom in another school had been an unhappy one and that to her it simply meant doing the guidance department's work for it.

Teachers may be active in the guidance program without real personal involvement in it. If additional duties such as testing and homeroom programs are imposed on teachers without their agreement about the importance of guidance and without time allowance, the result may be resentment of the guidance program rather than concern with it.

When the teacher believes that guidance is important and understands how he as teacher may contribute to it and enrich his teaching from it, he is more likely to become truly involved in the work of the guidance department. Involvement may take the form of additional time given to guidance functions. It may also take the form of approaching teaching and students in a different way or with a different attitude. It is this latter type of involvement which may make the finest contributions to the guidance program as an integral part of the school.

If this is true, then it is the responsibility of the guidance worker to give teachers the opportunity to share in planning the guidance program and to help them see what he is trying to do. He needs a real faith in the contribution that teachers can make to the guidance program and a humble realization that each person in the school has a contribution to make to guidance.

Principle 3: It is important that the people concerned with the school develop an understanding of the purposes and methods of the guidance program.

We met with the principal for the first time today. He said that he himself did not really know what a guidance counselor should do.

Problems seem to be piling up in the guidance office because they are not being taken care of anywhere else.

A student came in before school and said, "I have a problem. It doesn't have anything to do with school. Can I talk to you about it? Is that what you're here for?"

As indicated in the previous discussion, involvement of teachers in guidance work is in part dependent on their understanding of guidance. Perhaps even more important is the need for the administration of the school to understand what the guidance worker is trying to do, to agree with it fundamentally, and to support it. Without the support and understanding of the administration, the guidance worker may find himself severely limited in developing a guidance program and perhaps burdened with responsibilities outside the scope of the guidance program. He needs, therefore, to work closely with the administration in defining the function of guidance in the school.

The guidance worker may also be limited by lack of understanding on the part of students and parents. If he is to help students gain more from their educational experience, they should understand the role of the guidance program. Students need to see how guidance may contribute to their growth and learning, and parents need to see how guidance may contribute to the education of their children. The best kind of understanding is likely to come if the people concerned with the school—administrators, teachers, parents, students—have the opportunity to share in developing the purposes and activities of the guidance department.

Principle 4: Guidance is vitally concerned with changing attitudes.

The office secretary told me after an unusually poor meeting with homeroom teachers that there never has been a good homeroom program here. "You can't change the teachers."

To remarks such as "They just don't care," "They don't belong in school," and "They don't want to learn," I asked what the school has to offer to the slower students.

At the faculty meeting one of the teachers said he thinks the boys from the industrial arts and agriculture groups are looked down on by teachers as well as by other students.

The English teacher who thought teachers could teach without concern with emotional problems of their students told me after school that he has changed his mind.

Tom seems to be marking time until he is 16 and can leave school.

Attitudes with which guidance is primarily concerned are of two kinds—attitudes toward guidance and education and attitudes toward people. Attitudes toward guidance and education may be concerns of the guidance department because conflicting attitudes toward education or resentful attitudes toward guidance are surely limiting factors in developing a guidance program. If the guidance department is to function fully and effectively, it must hope to change attitudes. The guidance worker may hope to affect attitudes toward education and guidance through his own relations with people concerned with the school, by making clear his own attitudes, and by building on existing attitudes among students and staff which contribute to effective learning and teaching.

In addition to attitudes toward education and guidance, there are attitudes of people toward people—how they feel about the people around them and how they feel about themselves. These attitudes are determining factors in the atmosphere of the school. Teachers who do not respect students as people are not free to help students grow and learn. Teachers who are themselves unhappy may find it difficult to work well with students and consequently to teach them. Students who do not respect themselves are not completely free to take advantage of the opportunities for learning in the school situation. The guidance counselor is seriously hampered in his attempt to help a student come to a better understanding of himself if the student leaves the guidance office to go to a classroom where the teacher makes no attempt to understand him. The guidance department is working alone and handicapping itself unless it concerns itself with the attitudes that are part of the school environment as well as with the help that it offers to students and teachers through such activities as counseling and testing.

The guidance counselor may hope to change attitudes toward people by his own demonstrable faith in teachers and students, by his own attitudes toward people, by his relations with other people, and by helping teachers and students come to a better understanding of themselves and of each other. The hoped-for result is an environment in which there is an increase in mutual respect and confidence.

Principle 5: The relations of the guidance worker with those with whom he works are basic to his success.

I had supper with one of the teachers last night. She said some of the teachers are afraid of me. "You're too educated."

After the meeting, my colleague in the guidance office told the teachers he appreciated their friendly response. Mrs. Lowe, who seems to be one of the leaders, said, "You didn't act the way other guidance counselors did so we accepted you. There was one here before we ran out in a hurry."

"You two really work with the teachers. That's the way I always thought guidance should be."

If the guidance worker hopes to make guidance an integral part of the school, to involve teachers in the program, to increase understanding of guidance, and to change attitudes, he himself must surely have the ability to get along well with other people. He cannot hope to progress toward these aims unless the people concerned with the school like, respect, and have confidence in him.

He needs, therefore, to strive toward the same respect and warm understanding for others and the same self-understanding that he would like to see in others. Some of the

respect and understanding comes from knowledge of human behavior. In addition, it is important that the guidance worker have a sound personal faith on which he bases his attitudes and values and hence his behavior toward others.

Principle 6: A guidance program develops slowly.

As my colleague sat down back of his desk, he said, "I'm more discouraged that I've ever been. Everywhere I look there are more problems, and when I went to see Dr. Stevens about the county testing program he didn't even listen. How can we get anything done?"

Although the evidence is slight, I think the homeroom teachers are beginning to believe that they have some part in deciding what should take place in homeroom. Those who are taking time in homeroom to talk informally with the students are finding it a satisfying and rewarding experience.

Counseling contacts with students continue to increase. Those who have been sent in by teachers are coming back of their own volition.

Involving teachers in the guidance program is a slow process. Changing understandings and attitudes is slow. This hardly needs to be said. Yet it deserves emphasis because it is so easy to forget in the pressure of the school situation. It may help the guidance worker to remember this for, being human, he wants to see that his work is bringing results and be able to show results to others. Often, he must be content with small bits of progress while bearing in mind the larger purposes toward which he is working and be able to live with the knowledge of what is often a tremendous gap between the existing situation and the hoped-for situation.

The guidance worker, therefore, needs to be secure in what he believes about himself, about others, and about guidance so that he is not threatened by slowness of progress or paucity of observable results. He needs to be sure of what he believes but not so sure that he cannot change his beliefs or understand the beliefs of others. This means believing that he is right but accepting the ever present possibility that he may be wrong. His faith in the ability of others to change must be extended to himself.

COMMITTEE PROPOSED TO SPAN WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES

The President's National Committee for the White House Conference on Children and Youth, March 27–April 2, 1960, has passed a resolution recommending that a National Committee on Children and Youth be formed to span the years between the Conferences, which are held every 10 years. Such a group would take its membership from existing groups which are constituent bodies of the White House Conference: the Council of National Organizations on Children and Youth, the National Council of State Committees for Children and Youth, and the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth.

SUCCESS AND FAILURE IN VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

WILLIAM M. McPHEE and FRANK L. MAGLEBY

WHAT ARE SOME of the factors which contribute to success or failure in the vocational adjustment of disabled clients after they have received services from state divisions of vocational rehabilitation? Vocational counselors and others concerned with this question may be interested in the findings of a research project which was conducted during the summer of 1958 through the cooperation of the Montana State Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation and the Graduate School of Social Work at the University of Utah.[1] From a 17 per cent random, stratified, proportional sample of 1,700 clients rehabilitated through the services of the Montana Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation during the years 1949–1954, the vocational adjustment of 288 clients was determined. These rehabilitants were categorized into the following groups:

The Substantially Employed: By definition 75 per cent (216 clients) were considered vocationally successful. They had been employed for 10 months or more during the year prior to being interviewed or they had been employed more than 75 per cent of the time since rehabilitation services.

The Unsubstantially Employed: Eleven per cent (33 clients) had been employed not less than five months or more than ten months during the year prior to the interview.

The Minimally Employed: Fourteen per cent (39 clients) had been totally unemployed for more than seven months during the year prior to interview. Some of them had not held a job for several years.

Scope of Study

Interviews were conducted by faculty members of the Graduate School of Social Work with these clients and with some of their employers and family members. In TABLE 1 is shown the number of interviews conducted.

TABLE 1

Number of Clients, Employers, and Families Interviewed

	Clients Interviewed	*Employers Interviewed*	*Families Interviewed*
Substantially Employed	216	88	171
Unsubstantially Employed	33	2	25
Minimally Employed	39	1	22
TOTAL	288	91	218

Interview schedules were constructed to enable the research team to determine and compare the social, economic, health, and vocational training factors for the clients under consideration. The findings follow:

Social Factors

The substantially employed group was more socially stable, when interviewed in 1958. A significant difference, at the five per cent level of confidence, existed between the substantially employed and the unsubstantially and minimally employed in each of

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[1] This investigation was supported in part by a research special project grant from the office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under the title, "The Influence of Emotional, Social, and Physical Factors on Vocational Rehabilitation Adjustment."

the following nine areas. More of the substantially employed:

1. Were married.
2. Had one or more children.
3. Lived with spouse and children.
4. Supported one or more dependents.
5. Participated in social activities with family.
6. Had a healthy involvement in family relationships.
7. Had great feelings of accomplishment related to family.
8. Reported no family or other problems which interfered with rehabilitation.
9. Attended church.

The greater social stability of the substantially employed was further indicated by their improved marital status between the time of application for rehabilitation services and when interviewed four to nine years later. While an additional 28 per cent of the substantially employed were married in 1958, there was an increase of only one per cent in the unsubstantially employed. Ten per cent fewer in the minimally employed were married in 1958.

The substantially employed reported only a one per cent increase in the number who were divorced after the close of rehabilitation services. The unsubstantially employed reported an increase of six per cent and the minimally employed an increase of eight per cent.

Health Factors

Poor health was a major factor which influenced vocational failure. This was evident because of the relationship between the severity of health problems and the extent of unemployment. A larger percentage of those in minimal employment (significant at the five per cent level of confidence) when compared with the other two groups:

1. Were confined to their home or to a hospital for one month or more during the year prior to interview;
2. Reported that poor health was a major reason for unemployment;
3. Had received medical services through the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation;
4. Needed medical care which they were unable to finance;
5. Were under continuous medical care during the year prior to the interview.

Vocational Training Factors

The amount of high school and vocational training and attitude toward training influences success or failure in vocational rehabilitation. A larger percentage of the substantially employed, significant at the five per cent level of confidence:

1. Were high school graduates at application;
2. Had completed more than 10 years education at application;
3. Obtained training through the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation;
4. Obtained education or training after their cases had been closed as rehabilitated;
5. Had definite plans for additional training at interview.

The substantially employed were more satisfied with the vocational counseling received through the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation. A significantly larger percentage of this group stated the rehabilitation plan under which they received services was sound and the vocational objective was essentially their own.

Employment and Age Factors

It is of interest to note that the economic condition of all three groups was improved during the four to nine years between application and interview. The percentage gain for all three groups is shown in TABLE 2.

A more satisfactory vocational adjustment was achieved by applicants who were under age 40. The mean age of the substantially employed at application was 31, compared with a mean age of 42 and 41 for the unsubstantially and minimally employed. A significantly larger percentage of those in unsubstantial and minimal employment were over 49 years of age at application. Only six per cent of the substantially employed were over 49 years of age at application, but 33 per cent of the two less successful groups were in this category.

TABLE 2

Number and Per Cent of Clients in Substantial, Unsubstantial, and Minimal Employment who were Supported by Wages at Application and at Interview

Employment Classification	Wages as Primary Source of Support				Percentage Gain from Application to Interview
	At Application		At Interview		
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Substantial	45	21	201	93	72
Unsubstantial	5	15	24	73	58
Minimal	4	10	6	16	6

Conclusions

A larger percentage of the clients who were vocationally successful:

1. Were more socially adequate;
2. Had less serious health problems at the time of application and when interviewed;
3. Were generally able to make better use of available services for education and training;
4. Were less than 49 years of age at application.

The economic situation of all three groups improved from the time of application for rehabilitation services until interviewed four to nine years later by members of the research team. The services of the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation may have positively influenced the vocational adjustment of all three groups under consideration.

Since vocational counselors and rehabilitation agencies are concerned with the vocational success of their clients, some of the factors which appear from this study to be concomitant with vocational success are:

1. A favorable educational record, indicated by the completion of two or more years of high school;
2. Stable marriage and healthy family relationships;
3. Enthusiasm for obtaining additional education or training, both during the process of preparing for a vocation and after the completion of rehabilitation services;
4. Satisfaction with the vocational objective selected during the process of vocational counseling;
5. Fair health as indicated by the following: (a) Has not been under continuous medical care during the previous year; (b) Has not been confined to his home or a hospital for one month or more during the year prior to application;
6. Relative youth as indicated by an age of less than 40 years.

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Prediction of Academic Success in a School of Nursing

WILEY S. GARRETT

NURSING SCHOOL students fail and withdraw from nursing school for many reasons. Foremost among the reasons is academic failure. A number of studies have shown this to be true. Potts [3] found from a group of 1,555 students in nursing schools, 15 per cent were eliminated due to scholastic failure. Of these failures, 90 per cent occurred within the first six months of the course. Horner [2, *p. 38*] found that 37 per cent of a group of over 15,000 students admitted to nursing schools were eliminated prior to the completion of their course. In the case of those eliminated, in two year classes, about 30 per cent withdrew because of scholastic failure.

Obviously student failures are costly in many ways. Any method which contributes to the reduction of student failure is much sought by schools of nursing. A study by Ford [1] found that pre-entrance tests consisting of a science test, reading test, and high school point average were fairly effective in predicting success in the schools of nursing used in his study, the multiple correlation coefficient being 0.697. Had the regression equation been used on the sample in his study, 13.1 per cent of those who had been admitted to the nursing schools would have been eliminated, hence, significantly reducing scholastic failure.

These studies all point up the vital need for better selection techniques that will reduce to a minimum the selection of students who have a very low potential for success for hospital schools of nursing.

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Acknowledgement of the invaluable assistance in obtaining the data for academic grades and high school point average is made to Mrs. Helen Ludwig, Associate Director of Nurses; Mrs. W. A. Griffith and Mrs. Lyle Gardner, Assistant Instructors, Trumbull Memorial Hospital Nursing Staff.

Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which scholastic success in the Trumbull Memorial Hospital School of Nursing could be predicted from a battery of tests administered to entering groups.

Subjects

The subjects used in this study were applicants accepted in the School of Nursing of the Trumbull Memorial Hospital, Warren, Ohio. The sample consisted of 165 students from five entering classes covering the years 1950–1954 who had taken the battery of tests prior to enrollment and who had completed the first year. The sample did not include transfers, dropouts before first-year final grades, and students who had taken a battery of tests elsewhere.

The entrance requirements at Trumbull Memorial Hospital School of Nursing are based on the following qualifications:

1. An applicant must be between 17 and 35 years of age.

2. An applicant must meet the minimum educational requirements, as listed by the Ohio State Nurses' Board which include—"Graduation from a high school of the first grade, rank in the upper half of the graduation class, and present 16 units of credit. Of the 16 units 7 are required: English 3 units, Mathematics 1 unit, Social Studies 2 units, Biological or Physical Sciences 1 unit, and 9 are elective."

3. Excellent mental, emotional, and physical health is essential.

4. Applicant must be of good moral character.

5. A candidate for admission must be a citizen of the United States.

6. Married applicants will be given consideration.

Variables

The battery of predictors included the following measures:

1. *Ohio State University Psychological Tests,* Form 21, Herbert A. Toops. Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois.

2. *Iowa Silent Reading Tests, Advanced Test,* Form Am, New Edition, Green, Jorgensen, and Kelly. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

3. *George Washington University Series, Arithmetic Test for Prospective Nurses,* Form 1, First Edition, Thelma Hunt, 1940.

4. *Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers,* Andrews, Paterson, and Longstaff. Psychological Corporation, New York.

5. *MacQuarrie Test for Mechanical Ability,* T. W. MacQuarrie. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

6. *Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale,* 1950. Developed by the Research Division of the Neuro-Psychiatric Institute of the Hartford Retreat, Hartford, Connecticut.

7. High School Point Average.

Each student had taken all of the tests (variables 1 through 6) before entrance to the School of Nursing; the high school point average (variable 7) was taken from the student's application to the School of Nursing; and the criterion for the study was the point average of all scholastic grades for the first year as found in the student's Nursing School Cumulative Educational Record.

Procedure

Since the purpose of the study is to determine the extent that a battery of seven variables is able to predict scholastic success for the Trumbull Memorial School of Nursing, an experimental design is needed which will determine how much each variable is contributing to the criterion (first year nursing grades). The Wherry-Doolittle Test Selection Method [4] was selected.

The first phase of the study consisted in determining the criterion correlations and the intercorrelations for each of the seven variables used as predictors.

TABLE 1 gives the product moment correlations between the variables, with the mean and standard deviation of each variable. Both the Minnesota Test for Clerical Workers and the MacQuarrie Test for Mechanical Ability yielded very low validity correlations; in fact, although these two measures correlated significantly (0.232) with each other, most of the other r's obtained for all the other intercorrelations were not significantly different from zero. The exceptions are an r of 0.312 between the Iowa Silent Reading Test and the Minnesota Clerical Test and r's of 0.220 and 0.223 respectively between the MacQuarrie Test of Mechanical Ability and the Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale. All other measures correlated significantly with the criterion and each other, with the exception of an obtained r of 0.186 between the Iowa Silent Reading Test and the Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale.

The next phase of the study was the application of the Wherry-Doolittle Test Selection Method. Using the seven variables, tests one through seven in TABLE 1, as the predictors and variable eight, First Year Hospital Grades, as the criterion, the method will yield the maximum shrunken multiple correlation with the criterion.

TABLE 2 gives the beta weights and successive changes of the multiple R as each test was selected from the battery of predictors. From this table it was concluded that the most practical regression equation for the prediction of first year nursing grades for students from the general population used in this study would include the High School Point Average, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, the Hunt Arithmetic Test, and the Minnesota Clerical Test, which gives a multiple R of 0.641 $\pm$ 0.019. The other measures, although giving criterion correlations as high as 0.398 for the Ohio State Test, 0.219 for the Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale and 0.097 for the MacQuarrie Test of Mechanical Ability, do not add significantly to the predictive power of the battery.

TABLE 1

Criterion Correlations and Intercorrelations between Variables and the Mean and Standard Deviation of Each Variable

(N = 165)

Test	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*Mean*	*Std. Dev.*
1. Ohio State Psych. Test		0.610	0.389	0.152*	0.199*	0.218	0.377	0.398	54.42	21.21
2. Iowa Silent Reading			0.294	0.312	0.220	0.186*	0.203	0.345	174.51	11.60
3. Hunt Arith. Test				0.133*	0.180*	0.297	0.268	0.293	25.93	10.14
4. Minn. Cler. Test					0.232	0.165*	0.162*	0.089*	125.63	22.14
5. MacQ. Mech. Ability						0.223	0.137*	0.097*	63.29	10.51
6. S-H Retreat Scale							0.240	0.219	100.27	15.52
7. High School Point Ave.								0.598	2.62	0.58
8. 1st Yr. Hosp. Gr.									2.31	0.47

* P. E. indicates that obtained r is not significantly different from zero.

TABLE 2 shows that High School Point Average contributed most to the prediction of First Year Nursing Grades. If this predictor were eliminated, what is the best battery of tests to use for the prediction of the criterion? To evaluate the effectiveness of the test battery as one of the factors used for the selection of nurses in the Trumbull Memorial Hospital School of Nursing, a second multiple correlation coefficient was computed excluding high school point average. Using six variables, tests one through six in TABLE 1, as the predictors, and variable eight, First Year Hospital Grades, as the criterion, TABLE 3 gives the beta weights and the successive changes of the multiple R as each test was selected from the battery of predictors.

TABLE 2

Beta Weights and Coefficients of Multiple Correlations Showing Successive Changes as Measures Are Selected from the Battery

Tests in the Order of Selection	*Beta Weights*	*Multiple R*
1. High School Point Average	0.527	0.598
2. Iowa Silent Reading	0.206	0.637
3. Hunt Arithmetic	0.081	0.639
4. Minnesota Clerical	0.080	0.641
5. Ohio State Psychological	*	0.640
6. Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale	*	0.638
7. MacQuarrie Mechanical	*	0.635

* Beta weight obtained for only those tests included within maximum multiple R.

From TABLE 3 it was concluded that the most practical regression equation for the prediction of first year nursing grades for students from the general population used in this study would include the Ohio State Psychological Test, the Hunt Arithmetic Test, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, and the Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale which gives a multiple R of 0.435 ± 0.017. The other measures, the Minnesota Clerical Test and the MacQuarrie Test for Mechanical Ability, do not add sufficiently to the predictive power of the battery to justify the time and

expense involved in administering and scoring the tests.

Conclusions

On the basis of the study the following conclusions seem to be justified:

1. The High School Point Average, the Hunt Arithmetic Test, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, and the Minnesota Clerical Test were fairly effective in predicting success in the Trumbull Memorial Hospital School of Nursing—the multiple correlation coefficient being 0.641.

2. A second multiple correlation coefficient was computed excluding the High School point average. The Ohio State Psychological Examination, the Hunt Arithmetic Test, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, and the Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale were selected, in that order, giving a multiple R of 0.435. When the Minnesota Clerical Test and the MacQuarrie Test of Mechanical Ability were selected the multiple R showed a shrinkage of 0.005 and 0.010 respectively. This indicates that neither of these tests, either separately or together, added appreciably to the predictive power of the battery.

TABLE 3

Beta Weights and Coefficients of Multiple Correlation Showing Successive Changes as Measures are Selected from the Battery

Tests in the Order of Selection	*Beta Weights*	*Multiple R*
1. Ohio State Psychological	0.239	0.398
2. Hunt Arithmetic	0.128	0.419
3. Iowa Silent Reading	0.143	0.430
4. Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale	0.102	0.435
5. Minnesota Clerical	*	0.430
6. MacQuarrie Mechanical	*	0.425

* Beta weight obtained for only those tests included within maximum multiple R.

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SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION LEADERS MEET

The Southern Regional Workshop of the U. S. House of Representatives' Subcommittee on Special Education and Rehabilitation was held at the University of Alabama Extension Center, Birmingham, on January 25 and 26, 1960. Two hundred leaders in Special Education and Rehabilitation, representing the areas of Visual Disabilities, Speech and Hearing Disabilities, Neuromuscular and Orthopedic Disabilities, Chronic Disabilities, Mentally Handicapped and Emotionally Disturbed, Mental Retardation and Gifted, met to discuss the pressing unmet needs for the exceptional in these categories.

PROJECT TALENT—

The Identification, Development, and Utilization of Human Talents

JOHN C. FLANAGAN and JOHN T. DAILEY

In March 1960, for the first time, an inventory will be made not only of the numbers but also of the quality and potential of our youth. It should, for the first time, give accurate estimates of the proportion of American youth with valuable talents for entrance into such careers as salesmen, engineers, teachers, politicians, bricklayers, space pilots, machinists, writers, artists, and so forth.

Jointly the University of Pittsburgh and the American Institute for Research have developed plans and instruments for the systematic collection of the necessary data. In March, 1960, a two-day battery of educational and psychological tests will be given to a five per cent sample of high school students across the country.

Data will be collected on all of the students in about 1,200 secondary schools including grades 9–12. The procedures to be used in the study have been especially developed and will sample each student's aptitudes and achievements in a comprehensive way. The tests will include a broad range of aptitude and ability tests, measures of educational achievement in mathematics, English, and other areas, and measures of interest and personal characteristics. When these test scores are combined with information about the background of the student, the community, and the school, the results will provide an accurate inventory of the abilities and potentialities of the youth of this country.

During the past year there has been a final tryout of the data gathering instruments and procedures. This tryout included 10,000 high school students in 20 schools in seven states. Judging from the results of this tryout, enthusiastic cooperation can be expected from the 500,000 students and the 25,000 teachers who will participate in the study.

Another objective of the follow-up phase of the study is to determine just how closely the present potentials of the students match their future accomplishments. The information on the students will be compared with many important behaviors occurring in the later life of the subjects. All of the high school students included in the study are to be followed up approximately one year after the graduation of their high school class. They will also be contacted at intervals later. Information will be obtained from the students on their occupations, training courses actually entered, the reasons for their choices, their success and satisfaction with the activity chosen, marriage status, present plans including marriage plans, changes of residence, and other related facts regarding their education, career, and adjustment. This information will then be compared with the original test and background data by high capacity electronic computing equipment and studies will be made of the relationship of test scores and of other originally gathered information to the status of the individuals at the time of the followup. Project TALENT is financed by the U. S. Office of Education and other government agencies, for the basic purpose of making a national census or inventory of the human resources of American youth.

Kenneth E. Oberholtzer, Superintendent

John C. Flanagan is Professor of Psychology at the University of Pittsburgh and President of the American Institute for Research, and John T. Dailey is Research Associate at the University of Pittsburgh and Program Director of the Educational Research Division of the Institute.

of Denver Public Schools, Denver, Colorado, is Chairman of the Advisory Panels associated with the program, and the Chairman of the Guidance and Counseling Panel is Edward Landy, Director, Division of Counseling Services, Newton, Massachusetts, Public Schools.

Dr. John C. Flanagan, of the University of Pittsburgh, is national administrative head of the Project and Dr. John T. Dailey, also a faculty member at the University of Pittsburgh, has been assigned to be Program Director. Main office of the Project has been established in Washington, D. C.

Ninety Regional Coordinators are making arrangements for the testing and will guide the schools in the administration of the tests; however, the actual testing is carried out entirely by local teachers. There is no financial cost to the schools. The persons who have taken the posts of Regional Coordinator will serve as part-time consultants to the University of Pittsburgh on this national survey.

There will be no comparison of one school or city or state against another, nor will Project TALENT give the scores of students, or their names, to any persons except the local school principal. The local schools may use the information and may find it useful in helping students to choose subjects and interests at which the tests indicate they might do well.

Some of the important results of this National Aptitude and Ability Census should be:

A Comprehensive counseling guide indicating the patterns of aptitude and ability which are predictive of success in various careers. In the follow-ups after the national examinations and analysis, students who took the test will be located and asked to report on educational and vocational experiences. A young girl may have become a secretary, or a housewife, or she may have gone to college. By studying thousands of student aptitude, interest, and ability patterns and finding out the person's later activities and occupations, we will learn a great deal. This will help students by predicting more precisely what kinds of aptitudes and abilities, what kinds of courses, and what kinds of interests constitute the best basis for various kinds of careers. An artist needs good color sense, a scientist needs mathematical ability, but counselors know that many other factors enter into the qualifications for success in a career. Motivation is a necessary ingredient, but the best use of a student's special talents requires that he identify this talent early and obtain the education essential for the full development and effective use of his powers.

A Better understanding of how young people choose their life work. Many people follow their family trade or profession. They tend to think that people know quite early what their life work will be. Other people drift into an occupation, and they tend to think that everyone more or less drifts into a particular trade, business, or profession. Many people feel that they have little choice.

However, many people today do have a choice, and the diversity of occupations and the need for special training continue to increase. We have begun to learn something about the process by which a young person decides that he would like to be a teacher, a lawyer, or an apprentice for a trade. This study and others can help us understand at what ages certain lifetime careers tend to be chosen.

A better understanding of the educational experiences which prepare students for their life work. American education is noted for its diversity. Only through the analysis of detailed information about students, their educational experiences, and their subsequent successes or failures can we hope to make our educational system as flexible and responsible to the individual needs of its students as it must be if our nation is to continue to develop and prosper.

Project TALENT has been carefully designed to fill an important national need for facts regarding the identification, development, and utilization of our human resources. This information is intended as a basis for manpower policies and as a basic resource for the many individuals responsible for the education of our children.

Testing the Test

DAVID V. TIEDEMAN
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Geist Picture Interest Inventory

GEIST PICTURE INTEREST INVENTORY: GENERAL FORM: MALE, Grades 8–12, 1959. Inventory (scores for 11 interest areas: persuasive, clerical, mechanical, musical, scientific, outdoor, literary, computational, artistic, social service, and dramatic); Qualitative Check List (optional; scores for 7 motivational areas: could not say, family, prestige, financial, intrinsic and personality, environmental, and past experience); IBM; 1 form. $1.00 per sample set, $6.00 per tester's kit, $1.50 per manual, $2.50 per set of 11 area scoring keys, $9.50 per 20 inventory booklets, $5.00 per 100 inventory answer sheets and profiles, $3.00 per 25 qualitative statement cardboards, $4.50 per 25 qualitative check lists and profiles. (Lower rates when buying in quantity.) 10–25 minutes for Inventory; 25–40 minutes for Check List. Harold Giest, Psychological Test Specialists, Box 1441, Missoula, Montana.

I HAVE BEEN interested in the concept of the *Geist Picture Interest Inventory* since I had opportunity, in another capacity, to preview the test several years ago. Now that the test is available I thought I'd call your attention to it even though I would not yet advise general acceptance of it.

Since I later note many faults of the *Geist Inventory*, you may wonder why I single it out when those tried and "true" favorites of interest assessment—the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* and the *Kuder Preference Record-Vocational*—are so readily available. The answer simply lies in the fact that the Geist, while in the Kuder image, *uses line drawings as stimuli.* Self concept is now a central theme in vocational development [2]. Perhaps self concept is better viewed through line drawings than it is now viewed through words—particularly names of either activities or occupations. "A picture is worth a thousand words," we say.

The *Inventory* consists of 44 triads of line drawings representing ". . . major vocational and avocational activities. There are 113 drawings of actual activities and 19 of objects associated with activities" [*1, p. 415*]. Responses are seemingly only logically assigned to one of 11 interest areas: persuasive, clerical, mechanical, musical, scientific, outdoor, literary, computational, artistic, social service, and dramatic. These categories suggest, of course, the *Kuder Preference Record-Vocational* on which the Geist is modelled. (All save the dramatic score of the Geist is patterned on one of the 10 interest scores of the Kuder.) The Geist has the advantage of the Kuder, however, in that activity is presented *in a context.* Hence, tastes elicited by the Geist more nearly represent preference *in status quo.* Such tastes may more likely be the "gyroscopes" keeping people on course than are those expressed in response to a word stimulus.

The psychometrician asks, "Does it predict?" If *success* at work or school is the object of prediction, I doubt that the picture stimuli of the Geist, even if the test were more reliable, would predict as well as have the word stimuli of the Strong and Kuder. Interest tests (word) are ordinarily considered in relation with professional or, at least, high-level occupations where language usage is a necessary aspect of success. Hence interest tests probably will not show up "well" unless they are in the language idiom. Perhaps for high-level occupations tastes do need reflection only in words.

The *Geist Picture Interest Inventory* may help us unravel a bit this seeming dilemma of the interest inventory. The picture stimulus may better isolate those tastes that motivate one to enter into one or another *kind* of work while the word stimulus may better indicate whether one will satisfy those who permit him to work or not. If such were the case, we would have gained upon the separation of interest and capacity.

The *Geist Picture Interest Inventory* directs my mind as indicated. A logical separation of interest and capacity is a heady

goal to strive for. Unfortunately, the present *Inventory* may not advance us far in such a quest.

The scores of the *Geist Inventory* fluctuate over a six-month period a bit more than one desires for deep conviction about the definitiveness of the interests expressed. This fluctuation may be due to the shortness of the scales and to the possible resulting low reliability. On the other hand, interests probably vacillate, too. Dr. Geist has not yet separated these issues for us. In addition, the number, variety, and opposition of drawings seems less than desirable.

The Geist scales have been correlated with relevant scales of the Kuder in several instances. In general, the correlations are low. The possible low reliability of the Geist may contribute to this result. A further cause may be that the picture and word stimuli of vocational import are related but not identical as Dr. Geist hopes. However, the "19 . . . objects associated with activities" [*1, p. 415*] may also have introduced more ambiguity into the set of picture stimuli than Dr. Geist intended. As I studied these 19 items, I frequently found myself entertaining an aesthetic response rather than an occupational response. The aesthetic response may well be of occupational relevance; I do not know. My opinion, however, is that inclusion of avocational and other material in the Geist has made the intended ambiguity of the picture somewhat more inclusive than necessary.

The *Geist Picture Interest Inventory* has an accompanying "Motivation Forces Profile" which may be used optionally. A subject may be asked why he chose as he did in each of the 44 triads. Sixty-three reasons are offered each time, some of which are irrelevant in relation with a particular choice, *i.e.*, "Father engaged in this occupation" is irrelevant for many options. After these opinions are offered by the subject, they may be summarized in the categories: could not say; family; prestige; financial; intrinsic and personality; environmental; and past experience. Unfortunately, these "motivational" forces are not related directly to a particular interest area or pattern of item response; thus they provide only general information rather than specific information. In addition, they are to be expressed relative to the opportunity for expression, an opportunity truly dependent upon a particular *sequence* of 44 responses rather than upon the estimates provided. Hence I do not think that the motivation scores will be particularly useful. Dr. Geist offers no empiric contradiction of my opinion.

In summary then, this *Inventory* is intended to elicit tastes *in status quo*. Furthermore, the subject is to indicate why he chose as he did. I believe that rather useful occupational motivations will be contained in a subject's response in that context. Unfortunately, the present technical aspects of the *Inventory* will probably mask that potential. The summaries one is directed to get for the *Inventory* reveal preference and reason but not preference *with* reason. The logical operation of reflecting *both* preference *and* explanation into a different field, the operation we ordinarily use as we *think* about such circumstances, is thereby denied the tester. We likely do not understand preference and reason as a result. Also, we have no report on all that the subject excluded by deciding *against* 88 line drawings, *i.e.*, by picking but one of three possibilities in each of 44 instances.

Although I find that the *Inventory* has faults, both logical and technical, the set of picture stimuli intelligently used either clinically or more formally might: (1) assess interest in a fuller context than usual and hence predict choice better than we can now do; (2) help us separate interest and capacity; and (3) identify interests in occupations besides the professions if the picture repertoire were expanded. Because of this potential, I have directed your attention to this *Inventory*. Perhaps some of you may have opportunity to test some of this potential and to let others know about it. I think it may be profitable to orient investigations of occupational motivations to pictures of work situations.

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Letters

from our readers

Reading Retardation and Verbal Aptitudes

To the Editor:

In the September issue of the *Journal*, the Plattors and Sherwoods in their article, "Relationship Between Reading Retardation and the Measurement of Intelligence," contend that "scores on verbal intelligence tests are not valid measures for pupils with reading disabilities." Wishing to keep this to letter length, I shall comment only briefly on a few points of the article.

"If a 'discrepancy score' is defined as excess of non-verbal IQ over verbal IQ and if reading ability is related to the verbal score but not to the non-verbal score, there should be a significant discrepancy between the mean discrepancy score of retarded readers and the mean discrepancy score of on-grade readers." This implied cause-and-effect relationship is also apparent in their basic hypothesis that "low scores obtained by retarded readers may reflect the reading retardation rather than a basic incapacity to learn." But isn't it equally possible that low scores on a reading test and low scores on a verbal intelligence test both result from a lack of verbal facility? Informal observations indicate that counselors do recognize some pupils as not being particularly verbal and still possessed of a capacity to learn.

A second consideration is the definition of a retarded reader. The authors use reading grade vs. grade placement to determine retardation in reading. On the basis of the authors' non-language IQ data (mean IQ 84.5) 50 per cent of the pupils could be expected to be reading at fifth grade or above (estimated CA 144 months times 0.85 equals MA 122 months or about fifth grade placement). Or, if one takes the position that there is a causal factor common to both low verbal IQ and reading retardation, then the verbal IQ data discloses much less reading retardation than the 94 per cent of the authors'. Fourteen pupils were reading at fifth grade or above, and only 19 pupils had verbal IQ's of 90 or higher.

For the third point, consider again the authors' contention that a non-verbal IQ test is the only valid test for pupils with a reading disability. At what point does the non-language IQ test become invalid? It must, or else there are a goodly number of pupils in the sample who are over-achieving.

The fourth point bears upon a factor which frequently is apt to be overlooked when using published norms. Test makers strive to make their standardization samples representative, which means that included in the samples should be pupils who were retarded in reading. Thus, the author's sample was appraised against a standardization group which was presumably representative of school children in general. Unfortunately, school children in general normally include some retarded readers.

The fundamental issue appears to be whether children do differ in verbal aptitude. I would suspect that the data on which the authors base their article could also be used to support my contention that this difference does exist. Perhaps they will indulge in some more overtime work and do this further study.

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The Counselor's Self-Concept

To the Editor:

Some years ago, on a visit to a counseling center, I was introduced to the center by the counseling supervisor. At one point, the supervisor remarked, confidently, that many counselors had serious personality problems themselves and that they were really engaged in solving their own difficulties. Whether the counselors thought of themselves in this light I do not know, but it made me wonder just what the self-concept of the counselor ought to be. A more constructive view of the question has since occurred to me: that these counselors were in search of reflections of their own personality patterns. Thus, by psychographing client objectives, they more clearly perceived their own directions and objectives. Both of these conditions undoubtedly exist: the use of counselees by counselors to solve their own problems and the search for images of themselves by counselors. The first, it has seemed to me, is rather clearly an unhealthy condition and the second, legitimate if one subcribes to the principle that the counseling relationship is mutually helpful to both client and counselor.

If the counselor, first of all, is an integrated human being himself, all his powers and capacities are in harmony with each other. His intelligence and his emotions are not at odds. There is no battle between conflicting motives. There is no psychosomatic dichotomy. The so-called struggle between

nature and humanity which Erich Fromm has postulated must be resolved by the counselor for himself if he is to function properly in terms of adequate perceptions of his counselee's basic personality structure as well as of his unique abilities, interests, values, and motivations. If this condition exists in the counselor's self-concept, there is less likelihood of this counselor's using his client to resolve his own problems.

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A Neglected Area in Guidance

To The Editor:

Possibly the most overlooked and neglected area in the field of guidance today is the role of the administrator in the school system. Most guidance texts contain several pages about the administrator's role in the guidance program. Generally, these have to do with leadership and support. However, little or no attempt has been made to educate or obtain the realistic support of the administrator.

Guidance services are only one aspect of the total school program that the administrator is concerned with but are a very important service. It will become increasingly important if we are to utilize fully the capacities and talents of our youth. It is perhaps the one service that can integrate the entire educational program and provide the best possible education and training for each student.

As guidance programs are observed in various schools, it is quite evident that adequate programs exist only where the administrator has the guidance point of view. A further observation is that administrators with the guidance point of view are usually those with some guidance training. These administrators usually have a good background in educational psychology, individual differences, learning, and an awareness of guidance principles as they relate to the teaching and guiding of young people.

It is not possible to take each administrator at the present time and train him in guidance. It is just as impossible to expect that the individual guidance worker in each school can sell the administrator, staff, and community on guidance. The usual result is that the guidance worker's efforts are nullified if the administrator does not have the guidance point of view.

Today a number of our educational institutions are including guidance courses in the training programs of administrators. This influences only a small portion of the total number of administrators and has no effect on those already in the field.

The author does not wish to suggest that he has any or all of the answers to this problem. However, it should be recognized by all guidance personnel that this is one of the major problems facing them today and that a concentrated effort must be carried out if the problem is to be overcome.

In most instances it is not the fault of the administrator that guidance services are not properly utilized. Most would be willing to let the guidance worker carry out guidance. However, there is often little understanding of what the guidance worker should do. Something that is needed then is a description of guidance services and an analysis of competencies of the guidance person. Some will say this information exists and is available if the administrator wants to read it. This does not solve the problem for guidance people because the information must be placed in the hands of administrators and understood by them.

Administrators must have some assurance that when a guidance person comes to them for a job that he is adequately trained in the competencies he is to practice. This means that attention must be given to selection and training of guidance personnel. Unless there is a greater effort by training institutions to provide a common background of education and training for guidance personnel we cannot expect the administrator to know what to do with the person when he hires him. Careful selection must be exercised by the training institutions in choosing students. Individuals who will not only be a credit to the profession but will also be able to say no to a job that does not allow them to practice their specialty should be selected.

A further need is to educate the public so that they will demand and support guidance services for their children. The administrator will find it much easier to exercise proper leadership and to provide for these services if he is supported by the community. The public determines the kind of school and program a community will have, and it must be informed of the need for adequate guidance services.

As stated earlier the author does not have all of the answers to this problem. Others in guidance and administration can possibly provide many suggestions. However, guidance workers out in the field would probably agree that this is one of the most critical problems facing them today.

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Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

AN MMPI CODEBOOK FOR COUNSELORS, A MANUAL, by L. E. Drake & E. R. Oetting. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1959. 140 pp. $3.75.

THIS MANUAL is designed by the authors as an aid to experienced counselors in the use of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. The senior author has made commendable contributions in this area as already reported by him in the *Journal of Counseling Psychology*. They have now produced a "cookbook" primarily to assist the experienced counselor with a population other than the clinical population which served as the original base for the MMPI. They even go so far as to indicate its possible use for the training of counselors in objective personality assessment.

This is the first time that we can locate in one manual not only the description of the scales but also a relatively detailed hypothesis of each scale and in combination with other scales for the male and for the female college population separately.

The profiles were coded according to the Hathaway Method. The assumption underlying the coding and the interpretation is that ". . . the shape of the total profile is of greater significance than the elevation of single scores."

In this codebook the three highest and the two lowest scales were placed in the *numerical* order of the coding system irrespective of the deviation magnitude. Hathaway recognized that his coding method did not convey all the information about profiles; in fact, he stated "This Atlas is not presented as a research tool or source. We recommend highly the much more complete coding suggested by Welsh for research . . ." The method used in this manual does not permit one to speak of a particular profile configuration. The authors, therefore, had to proceed with limited profile data. Hathaway made the same error, but pointed out that the instrument necessitates a compromise in order to convey most of the useful meaning. This compromise is repeatedly questioned in the scientific literature.

The codebook section "presents the experimental data with no attempt at interpretation or analysis, but tentative opinions are presented here to help the counselor go beyond a simple consideration of the variables listed in the codebook to what Hathaway has termed a 'second level interpretation' of the MMPI profile" (p. 14). No attempt is made to use the codebook section for predictive purposes.

The authors' major contribution in this manual is that they describe in positive terms what the college population is in terms of the MMPI profile. They give some more normative data on a normal population.

The major criticism of this codebook is that the results of the study need to be cross-validated. In fact, this should have been done before the decision was made to present the manual for use by counselors and as a basic text. Until validity is definitely established, its use by counselors certainly should be limited to the college population and with extreme limitations and caution, and as another hypothesis succinctly emphasized by the authors. It should be used basically as a research tool until there is more empirical validity built into it, and it should be cross-validated on other normal populations before using it as a "cookbook." Until this is accomplished it is wrought with danger because the code section will sometimes be used routinely for positive interpretation of the profile and thus giving it the "P. T. Barnum" effect. This study should have been published as a psychological monograph in order that researchers might bat it around for awhile before presenting it for use in counseling.

Contaminations are clearly admitted in this study (pp. 12, 13). The authors stated that "most of the deficiencies in the data do not detract from the positive findings but may have prevented identification of other categories for which the data were too few

for statistical analysis" (p. 13). This is pure rationalization. Hathaway made the same error in the early days. Psychiatrists started using the MMPI, having it in front of them while making the diagnosis, and so it made it impossible to use the MMPI as a validity criterion.

In the Code Sections the phrase "was infrequently associated with" appears 214 times in the Male Code Section and 336 times in the Female Code Section. It would not be a semantic problem if the repetition contributed to the scientific approach, but it is highly problematical when the code pattern can at times be based upon even a minimum of one interview.

There is danger in emphasizing the positive and eliminating the negative which happened in this study. The authors report only the statistically significant code patterns in the tables used in this study. The code sections appear to take into consideration the complete data of the study. There was ample room to show this complete data in the two frequency tables.

What are the means and the standard deviations for this study? Are they the same as for the original study which was based upon a clinical population? There are studies showing that the college population achieves considerably higher mean scores.

Is the Drake-Oetting opus a product of "*parturient montes, nascetur ridiculus mus,*" or could it be that the manual with its cookbook is what Meehl has in mind when he makes the plea: "Wanted—A Good Cookbook?" Despite its limitations it may serve as part of the link towards an improvement in construct validation. The codebook sections may be the beginning of the end for what Meehl suggests "that for a rather wide range of clinical problems involving personality description from tests, the clinical interpreter is a costly middleman who might better be eliminated." Personality assessment would then be in the field of physics. And until this physical conception of psychology is a fact, "counselors can continue" what Williamson labels "the 'handholding' function and thereby temporarily postpone their unemployment." I cannot believe that the human cortex is so simple a structure that it can be reduced completely to the profile language by our present knowledge of measurement.—FLORIAN J. HERING, *Veterans Administration Center, Fort Snelling, St. Paul, Minnesota.*

which College for you?

By EDWARD HODNETT

Former President of Fenn College and Professor of English at Ohio University

Author of
The Art of Problem Solving and
The Art of Working With People

This "should be an immensely helpful little book to a young person seeking the college most suitable to his own needs and ambitions. It is a realistic guide, giving step-by-step advice to the student and his parents on how best to prepare for this choice. More than this, however, the book challenges the college-bound student to solve a grown-up problem in a reasoned and mature fashion. If more students chose their colleges with the care and thoughtfulness so ably outlined in this book, there would be fewer disappointments."—ROBER GARRISON, author of *The Adventure of Learning in College.* $2.95

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THE STATUS SEEKERS, by Vance Packard. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1959. vii + 376 pp. $4.50.

THE TWO MOST provocative subjects in the United States are sex and social class. Anyone who can write engagingly on either subject is assured of a goodly number of readers. The writer of this book has done a bright and readable journalistic job on social class and has even managed to combine it with sex in several chapters. By this time everybody knows the *The Status Seekers* is a best seller, and a reviewer would do better to give his critical estimate than to use much space on describing the content of the book.

The author has a lively style, a good eye for social status symbols, a cutting edge to his pen, and an amusing way of letting the reader take a titillating peek at the seamy side of social status. Furthermore, the book is obviously drawn from a fairly extensive survey of the literature on social stratification and a certain amount of interviewing that gives a great deal of concrete illustrative material. The chapters on houses, neighbors, clubs, and churches make very good reading. Indeed, if the book attempted no more than a sprightly treatment of social class in America, it would be an interesting and useful book.

But the author is not content with this. He assumes the role of social philosopher and views with alarm the American status system. He sees the American class structure as becoming more rigid. "All in all, we are in the process of becoming a many-layered society. Status is crystallizing. The boundaries between the various layers are becoming more rigid." In several places he speaks of a diminishing upward mobility in this country, which he believes is undermining the character of the American population.

The serious argument of the book goes as follows: The American social structure is becoming more rigid. There is less upward mobility than there used to be. Education itself reflects the social class structure in such a way as to prevent lower-status children from getting much opportunity to become upward mobile. What is needed is a reformation of education and a restoration in our society of the virtues of individuality and spontaneity.

The conclusion that the American social structure is becoming more rigid, with a decrease of upward social mobility, is the foundation of the book. But most present-day students of social stratification would disagree with this conclusion. Probably, about 1940, there was a consensus among sociologists that the class structure was hardening. Now the consensus has shifted to the other position, on the basis of a good deal of research done since 1940. The evidence on the matter is not quite conclusive, because there were few good studies of social stratification and social mobility before 1940, and, consequently, comparisons are difficult to make. But recent studies indicate that there is a great deal of upward and downward mobility in the United States. For instance, the reviewer's colleagues, studying the social structure of Kansas City, found that among middle-aged men, 33 per cent had been upward mobile at least one step in a four-class structure, while 12 per cent had been downward mobile. Thus, 45 per cent of the men at middle age were in a social class different from that in which they were born. This certainly describes an open, fluid, rather than a closed, rigid social structure.

The most serious flaw in the book, from the point of view of the educator, is its inadequate treatment of education, especially in the chapter on "The Molding of Tender Minds." In this chapter and in the book in general, the author describes education accurately as far as he goes, but he only half describes it. He looks at only one side of the coin. In examining education in a modern society, it is important to look at the two sides, the side that shows social rigidity and the side that shows social fluidity.

The Status Seekers presents the evidence that education tends to harden the class structure by giving higher status children better treatment than lower-status children get. The evidence for this proposition is voluminous and convincing. But it is only half of the truth. On the other side is the evidence, largely lacking in this book, that education works to make the society more open and fluid. While it is true that a much smaller fraction of working-class youth finish high school than of middle-class youth, and an even smaller proportion of working-class youth go to college, yet the important fact is that so large a minority of working-class youth actually finish

high school with its advantages for upward social mobility and that in the United States a larger minority of working-class youth go to college than is true of any other country. Thus education works to make the society more fluid and to increase the amount of vertical mobility.—ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST, *Professor of Education, University of Chicago.*

GUIDANCE SERVICES: ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION, by Emery Stoops (Ed.) & others. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. 302 pp. $5.75.

BOOK REVIEWING has its hazards. A major threat to an honest review is the human characteristic of generalizing about a text from a few egregious parts, whereas those parts do not truly represent the book as a whole.

The first reaction to this text caused the reviewer to believe that he had been incautious and had arrived at an unwarranted generalization. The book was meticulously restudied and contrasted to other books in the organization-administration area of guidance with suitable wait-and-think periods. The general conclusion resulting from the first reading remained: much of Stoop's book is so general and hortatory that it makes no contribution to guidance literature. The reviewer could not think of any particular group for whom this volume could serve. It may serve the new school administrator who wishes a general look at guidance along with a pointing up of some issues in organizing and administering guidance services. For the guidance worker, however, charged with organizing and administering a guidance program, the reviewer could find no quality which warrants recommending this text.

The chapter on counseling services typified the surprisingly shallow treatment of the several guidance services. The chapter is but 13 pages long, and three of these emphasize orientation to the school more than counseling. These few pages, in summary, tell us that the principal is responsible for providing counseling services, point out in a very general way the duties of a guidance worker, and mention some of the pupil problems with which counselors may work.

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Any of these points the guidance worker has long since come to know in a more thorough way in his basic course. It is interesting that a competitive text published by the same company gives 27 pages to organizing and administering counseling services and is helpful because it analyzes the area of organization and administration of counseling services and provides detailed help for the guidance worker.

The longest chapter treats building the master schedule for a school. This phenomenon likely is a reflection of the school administrator orientation of the editor and of some of the contributors. The rationale for this inclusion is that if you write guidance activities into the master schedule you have taken the chief step in organizing and administering a program of guidance services. One may or may not agree with this premise, depending on the particular school situation. A consensus of guidance workers likely would show agreement that guidance services should not be incidental to the school program, but an integral part of it. A master schedule which includes guidance activities is appropriate, therefore, but in a book which covers all issues of guidance organization and administration it seems justified to expect emphasis weights to be distributed so there would be more coverage of the subtle guidance activities involving inter-personal relationships than the treatment of schedule-making, which is a comparatively simple clerical matter. The book's hortatory nature, incidentally, is exemplified in this chapter. In the first eight pages there are fourteen "should"s and six "must"s in addition to numerous "shall"s which seem to have the same thrust.

There are 14 chapters whose titles are typical of organization and administration texts. The major message of the early chap-

ters, and a point emphasized throughout, is that it is the school administrator who determines whether success or failure will mark a school's guidance activities. He controls, ultimately, all the variables which go into success or failure. Even the technical proficiency of the counselor is his to control in that he is free to hire a technically competent or incompetent guidance worker. Likely no guidance worker will cavil with this contention; indeed, many a competent guidance worker has bemoaned the frustration of his professional practice because his principal lacked a guidance orientation. Let us hope, then, that if new or experienced school administrators study this book they will get the message!—RICHARD HILL BYRNE, *Professor of Education, University of Maryland.*

EDUCATING THE GIFTED: A BOOK OF READINGS, by Joseph L. French (Ed.). New York: Henry Holt & Company, 1959. vii + 555 pp. $5.50.

ADMINISTRATORS, teachers, counselors, and students who wish to obtain a rapid, yet comprehensive, survey of research concerning the gifted will find in this book a conveniently accessible, broadly representative collection of recent studies in the field. References listed in many of the articles provide suggestions for further exploration of special interest areas.

The editor has grouped 69 articles, written by outstanding investigators in the field, into 10 sections, each one prefaced by an introductory statement. The first deals with identifying characteristics commonly found among the gifted; it includes data concerning the preservation of giftedness in middle age and the incidence of intellectual giftedness among American Negroes. The second section, devoted to general education provisions for the gifted, is followed by three others which include descriptions of special programs on the elementary school level, in higher schools, and in a rural community. One whole section deals with acceleration, from kindergarten through college. The next two are concerned with adjustments made by the gifted, including maladaptative "underachievement." There follows material relating to preparation of teachers for the gifted and teachers' attitudes toward special classes for that group. The concluding section is devoted to evaluation and research, completed and needed.

The broad range of problems encountered in the literature concerning the gifted is well represented here, including among others: the nature of giftedness; identification; motivation; underachievement; programs and special provisions; contribution of parents, peers, and community; impact of health, cultural, and sociological factors; and areas requiring further study.

One of the book's assets is the inclusion of complete studies and articles. However, since some of these deal with problems pertinent to several categories established by the editor, certain repetitiousness and disproportionate emphasis occasionally result, particularly with respect to the topic of acceleration. The section dealing with underachievement, on the other hand, appears somewhat scanty in view of the high incidence of this problem (estimated at from 12 to 42 per cent in various surveys), its extensive treatment in the literature, and its importance to school personnel, particularly to counselors.

Omission of certain tables from a few of the studies was decided upon, apparently, in the interests of saving space. For the most part, this causes no difficulties, but occasionally it does, as on page 408 where the reader will probably want to consult the original study for a full appreciation of the findings discussed. Another unfortunate omission, this reviewer thinks, is the failure to have included at least one article dealing with the work of McClelland and his associates in the field of achievement motivation. Reference to this basic research is tucked away in one sentence in an article by Gowan (pp. 526–527).

A partial omission results from the editor's placing in a footnote, rather than in the text proper, the findings of McCord and Demerath, published in 1958, to the effect that they "found no significant difference in intelligence between Negroes and whites" in a study involving 612 northern, urban boys. The one article dealing with measured intelligence among American Negroes was published 10 years earlier (unlike most of the studies, which are very recent); it includes several statements which may be susceptible of misinterpretation.

In general, the book should prove of great practical use. For beginning students in educational research, many of the studies can stand as models; the level of statistical understanding required should be well within their abilities; the range of professional journals represented can serve as an introduction to available sources of educational articles. This reviewer agrees with the editor that *Educating the Gifted* "can fully provide the materials for a one-semester course on the gifted and can also be used selectively for guidance institutes or courses."—REGINA C. WEISS, *Borough Coordinator of Guidance, Manhattan and Richmond, New York City Board of Education.*

THE ONSET OF STUTTERING, by Wendell Johnson, *et al.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1959. 243 pp. $5.00.

THE ONSET OF STUTTERING is a factual publication regarding the integration of research findings at the State University of Iowa from 1934 through the present. It seems important that readers of this book be aware of the vast number of investigators as well as inter-university cooperation concerning the research herein. The major author of this book has long been a distinguished researcher regarding the stuttering problem. This is well demonstrated by his numerous articles and book publications during the last quarter century.

The first chapter, "Problem, Plan, and Purpose," is of utmost importance. Here is a careful and detailed description of the research procedure, as well as the method of analyzing the data collected for each of the three studies discussed.

Part I of the book is a review of the research findings between 1934 and 1952 (Studies I and II) and appears to be of invaluable assistance to the reader. The findings of these investigations emphasize the role of the family group in its possible contributions to the development of stuttering, and their influence was felt accordingly in the planning of Study III carried out between 1952 and 1957.

Part II is a complete presentation of Study III. The study " . . . involved 150 allegedly stuttering children and 150 allegedly nonstuttering children, matched for age, sex, and social-economic level of the family." Some 600 interviews were accomplished involving both the mother and the father of each child.

Appendix A, which consists of some 250 pages, includes the interview form used in Study III, together with a tabulation of all responses obtained in Studies II and III. While it is recognized that this form would be somewhat lengthy for an initial interview, it is strongly recommended that the reader evaluate it very carefully to assist in counseling the family and the nonfluent individual. It has been observed too frequently that the majority of our speech therapists work only toward alleviating nonfluencies through contact with the child. Research-wise, as well as in clinical practice, it is to be recognized that the entire family group is in need of assistance and direction.

Part III contains the two chapters presenting the summary and conclusions of the study. The two groups of children appeared to be essentially similar. It is reported, however, that, after an average in-

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terval of 18 months following the onset of the problem, the experimental group children were significantly more nonfluent than those in the control group. The difference was greatest in sound or syllable repetition; with respect to certain other types of nonfluency, the two groups did not differ. Such data seem to stimulate the question of operationally distinctive differences between types of nonfluencies observed. It was also apparent that the experimental group parents tended to operate with a more demanding level of expectation regarding the fluency of their children's speech. Furthermore, they showed more dissatisfaction with each other, had higher standards of child development, were generally more discontented, and seemed to be inclined to react in ways that contributed to more tension in the home environment. Most parents who felt their children's speech had improved appreciably were of the opinion that such improvement had been achieved through a calmer home atmosphere. This seemed to indicate that the parents felt they had become more easy-going and more attentive to the child.

A follow-up study concerning some 118 children in the experimental group was conducted nearly two and one-half years after the initial interview. The results revealed numerous positive findings regarding parental attitudes and appear to imply that ". . . whenever parents feel that a stuttering problem is beginning to develop, the sooner their concern is dealt with, and the earlier in the child's life this is done, the better. Even brief counseling of the sort indicated is apparently considerably effective."

It is difficult to limit oneself to a brief discussion of this most profound information. It is recognized that there will be certain aspects of the investigation considered to be incomplete and inadequate; many of these are discussed by the author. It is pleasing to note, and important to stress, that the author freely discusses the need for further study in the final chapter entitled "Conclusions," and he suggests a number of additional types of research that may be conducted. Concerning therapy, the author states, "The limits within which implied preventative and rehabilitative principles and procedures may be developed or adapted are relatively broad."

This reviewer feels that professional and even nonprofessional persons will agree that a very thorough investigation has been made. Such investigations encourage further research inquiry to assist in completing the picture of causation and treatment. Readers are most emphatically encouraged to examine this report for the purpose of utilizing it in continued and careful study of the information we now have at hand. Should we all read this book as a means of stimulation to continued investigation, we may eventually acquire the additional information that is needed to reduce the occurrence of this devastating disorder.—McKenzie Buck, *Head, Speech, and Hearing Clinic, University of Florida.*

Automation and Society, by Howard B. Jacobson & Joseph S. Roucek (Eds.). New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. 553 pp. $10.00.

This volume is a collection of essays describing the meaning of automation and its progress in key industries and analyzing some of its economic and social implications. The list of 32 contributors includes economists, industrialists, labor leaders, government administrators, university professors, and two officials of the Soviet Government. The style varies from the obscure terminology of a paper by two sociologists to the colloquial dialogue of a TV script on automation by Edward R. Murrow.

The contents can be best evaluated by reference to the subjects covered in the four sections of the book. The first presents a brief review of the concept of automation. Rather than adopting the popular view that does not discriminate between automation and mechanization, the author restricts his definition to specific innovations, such as transfer machines, automatic controls, and electronic computers, and reviews their evolution since the 17th century.

The second section contains 14 chapters describing examples of automation in leading industries, including automobile, electronics, metalworking, telephone, post office, railroads, and offices. Many of these descriptions are based on statements made by leading industrialists to the Congressional committee that investigated automation in 1955. They explain in layman's terms the nature of many important changes in in-

dustry such as printed wiring, automatic assembling, transfer machinery, long distance dialing, electronic data processing, and push-button freight yards.

The third section entitled, "Automation and Responsibility," consists of seven chapters giving over-all interpretations of automation. The views of the economists and labor leaders presented tend to be pessimistic about the short-run effects on economic stability; two industrialists and an engineering educator stress the long-run benefits and the need for better training; and a Congressional committee concludes that the progress of automation must be carefully watched to make sure that it does not add to unemployment.

The fourth section on "Automation and Society" covers the implications for specific fields such as education, the labor market, management, politics, public administration, leisure, and social stratification. The treatment of these topics is uneven. Some papers are speculative and the conclusions often have little relationship to the progress of automation. A few, drawing on research or investigation of actual experience, are factual and objective.

This volume provides a somewhat useful but costly orientation to the economic and social issues that automation poses. The chapters cover a wide range of subjects and contain useful bibliographies, but they overlap considerably and too often consist of familiar generalizations grounded on opinion. The appendices, covering over 100 pages, include a glossary of technical terms and short descriptions of 37 automated plants, which might interest some engineers but would hardly be helpful to other readers.

Among the most informative contributions are three original research studies of the effects of automation on jobs in the automobile and electronic industries and in a large office. K. Van Auken's summary of some case studies of personnel adjustments made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, B. Karsh's paper on the changing character of work, W. Faunce's chapter on emerging

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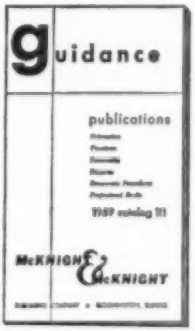

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patterns in the use of leisure, and J. Diebold on management problems are thoughtful appraisals of important issues. In view of the need for more technically trained workers, B. F. Skinner's account of experiments with teaching machines at Harvard is particularly intriguing.

The last chapter provides an interesting perspective on the progress of automation in the United States. Two officials of the Soviet Government describe impressive advances in automating Soviet industry and extensive training programs for skilled and technical workers. The conclusion suggested is that while we must always be mindful of the possible human cost of technological change, we must not overlook the hazard of lagging in these fields.—EDGAR WEINBERG, *Chief, Branch of Technological Studies, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor.*

THE EXECUTIVE INTERVIEW, by Benjamin Balinsky & Ruth Burger. New York: Harper & Bros., 1959. 209 pp. $4.00.

ACCORDING to the publishers, this handbook is designed exclusively for the executive who is called upon to talk with people both formally and informally. It is based on tested psychological principles, but is free of technical jargon. In large measure, this book accomplishes its purpose. It reviews for executives and managers a wide range of interview areas—employee selection, merit rating interviews, handling personnel conflicts, personal counseling, handling emotional problems, and various technical aspects of interviewing relationships including closing the interview.

The young executive, and for that matter, the counselor or school administrator or student of interviewing techniques, can glean much from this book. Dr. Balinsky has attempted with quite some success to make his guides for the interview dynamic by removing some of the meaningless suggestions which have come from other lists of things to do and not to do. He emphasizes, for example, the need to be natural in character in establishing the interview relationship. On the other hand, he too winds up with guide lists although they are more dynamic in character. One feels the need to practice, with this book as background, in order to absorb these points into a functioning interview skill.

In his chapter on the selection interview, the material on the use of the clinical approach and the material on biases and stereotypes were helpful. Another contribution that this book makes is to briefly present the interview setting in terms of the art of communication, perception in communication, and barriers to communication.

It was unfortunate that a very brief section was included on testing since it was not possible to give adequate coverage. Some readers might take exception to the specific references for the case of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale and the Rorschach Inkblot Test for use in higher level selection.

The summary and epilogue chapter is just that and gives an excellent over-view of the book.

In its particular efforts to fill a void between the material addressed to the employment office and that aimed at the clinical specialist, this book makes a contribution to existing literature. It would seem to be a particularly useful book for a student in management, education, personnel work, or counseling. It would appear to be the kind of book which would be particularly useful in conjunction with some type of role-playing seminar in interviewing.

This book alone will not answer all the needs of the executive attempting to increase his interviewing effectiveness, but it certainly will greatly increase his insights, give him some guides to try out, and probably whet his appetite for more practice.—JOHN H. CORNEHLSEN, *Personnel Psychologist, 60 East 42nd Street, New York 17, New York.*

Correction: The first sentence of Dr. Eli A. Rubinstein's review of *Economics of Mental Illness*, by Rashi Fein, in the November, 1959, *Journal*, should have read: "This volume is the second in a series of 10 monographs which will represent the major findings of the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health." We regret the error.—Ed.

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Publications . . . in brief

THOMAS M. MAGOON

School Testing Programs

Evaluating the School's Testing Program, G. E. Hill. Pupil Services Series No. 2, 1959. Center for Educational Service, College of Education, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio. 28 pp.

This booklet describes the development of an inventory for describing and evaluating school testing programs. This work was financed with National Defense Education Act funds under contract with the Division of Guidance and Testing of the State Department of Education.

The inventory grew out of a year-long series of workshops which considered school testing programs. The participants included personnel from 12 school systems and the College of Education of Ohio University. The participants shared the view that their testing programs were not ideal, that such programs need periodic review and revision, and that some instrument was needed to implement evaluative reviews. The same group worked on development of the inventory and its pilot study.

Results of utilizing the inventory with the 12 participating school systems are presented under such headings as: Scope and Sequence of Testing, Organization and Administration of Testing, Testing Facilities and Aids, Use of Test Results, and General Evaluation of Strengths and Weaknesses.

The School Testing Program Inventory is included in the report, and contains yearly testing activities, uses made of results, organization and administration of the program, qualifications of staff responsible for testing, and evaluation of the program in light of its objectives.

The inventory appears extremely detailed and comprehensive in coverage. Taken with the Illinois report on counseling services cited in this column in a previous issue, the two provide stimulating models for any state or school system concerned with evaluation and change in its testing and counseling programs.

Psychological Services Monograph

Psychological Services in Vocational Rehabilitation, S. G. DiMichael, 1959. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. 53 pp. $0.20 through GPO, Washington 25, D. C.

This monograph is designed to provide an accurate picture of psychological services relevant and useful to the vocational rehabilitation of the disabled. Psychological evaluations are the most frequent form of psychological service and the author stresses the distinction between evaluation of the individual and testing alone. He also attempts to convey the breadth of possible psychological services which may be directly or indirectly of value to rehabilitation personnel. Included among direct services, in addition to psychological evaluation, are speech and reading training, individual and group psychotherapy, occupational tryouts, and the like. Included among indirect services are the results of research studies clarifying the psychological characteristics of the disabled.

The material is presented in six sections: Psychological Evaluation as a Major Service, Provision of Psychological Services in Vocational Rehabilitation (including sections on ethical considerations in testing competence, varied uses of psychologists, fee schedules, and criteria for establishing a panel of psychologists), Standards in Selecting Clients for Psychological Evaluations, Psychological and Psychometric Reports, Relationships of Psychological Evaluations to Counseling, and Related Contributions to Rehabilitation (as those from the counseling interview, occupational information, training, and research).

In summary, the author makes excellent use of relevant references in providing a sound presentation of much practical information of value to counselors in general and rehabilitation personnel in particular.

Careers in Employee Relations

Jobs in Employee Relations, D. Yoder & Roberta J. Nelson. Research Study No. 38, 1959. American Management Association, Inc., 1515 Broadway, New York 36, N. Y. 52 pp. $1.50.

With the increasing reliance industry must place upon employee relations personnel, this report is a welcome one in providing descriptions of the prevalent personnel specializations. The jobs described are defined in various ways in different industries, but manpower management appears as a central responsibility in all of them.

The authors first made a job analysis of the jobs industries had in their employee relations departments. The job functions covered seven categories: departmental administration, employment and placement, training, collective bargaining, wage and salary administration, benefits and services, and research. Questionnaires as to job duties were then sent to 1,400 individuals holding employee relations positions in private industry throughout the United States. Less than 50 per cent usable returns were received and these form the basis of the report. Results indicated that the seven functions were per-

formed at multiple levels—director, supervisor, and specialist. Distribution of time spent in each of the seven function categories cited above clearly differentiate the levels. Thus, while supervisors typically spent only 40 to 50 per cent of their time in the most relevant functional category for their position, the specialists in the same category spent 75 to 85 per cent of their time in such duties.

The questionnaire returns provided the basis for descriptions of 17 employee relations positions. These included: (a) directors of employee relations, personnel, and labor relations; (b) supervisors of employment and placement, training, wage and salary administration, benefits and services, and personnel research; (c) specialists in each of the areas under (b) above; and (d) positions associated with personnel (medical services director, occupational health nurse, safety director, and editor of employee publications).

Each position description includes a job profile (percentage of time spent in each of the seven employee relations functions), reported titles, job duties (an elaboration of duties performed in the times indicated), qualifications for employment including reported education and most frequent areas of specialization, reported experience prior to present job, and recommended educational and work experience.

This report is a concisely presented picture of a series of positions which are frequently not discriminated by those lacking first-hand industrial experience.

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Medical School Admissions

Admission Requirements of American Medical Colleges including Canada, 1959–1960, 1959. Association of American Medical Colleges, (Dept. 60B), 2530 Ridge Ave., Evanston, Ill. 237 pp. $2.00.

The latest revision of the Admission Requirements of American Colleges is designed to provide current information on pre-medical preparation and on admission procedures and criteria used by medical schools. As such this yearly revised report provides up-to-date information of considerable value to the individual considering a medical career and to counselors, teachers, and administrators concerned with guidance of such individuals.

The bulk of the report (almost 200 pages) provides detailed descriptions of medical schools. For each school the material includes general information regarding the school, its historical development, and current facilities. This is followed by the type and amount of preparatory work required for entrance. Selection and application procedures are then outlined, followed by types of financial assistance available to students. The description closes with a half-page tabular presentation of requirements and fees, estimated expenses, characteristics of the 1959–1960 first-year medical class, and information to applicants regarding the 1960–1961 first-year class (including estimated size, application, and notification dates, etc.).

The first chapter will be of particular value to the individual who is in the earlier process of determining whether medicine would be an appropriate career for him. The chapter heading "The Medical School Admission Process" really under-estimates the chapter's contents. In addition to admission procedures, there are fairly detailed and clearly presented sections on medicine as a career, student characteristics looked for by medical schools, life (including financial problems, marriage, and student services) to mention but a few.

In summary, this is excellent reference for the professional counselor's own information and for educational and vocational counseling purposes. At the same time, the report should be equally valuable to those students and their parents who are considering medicine as a career plan.

Programs in Mental Retardation

Cooperative Programs of Training and Research in Mental Retardation, D. A. Hindman, 1959. Antioch Press, Yellow Springs, Ohio. 160 pp. $0.25.

This survey study describes cooperative relationships established between residential facilities for the mentally retarded and colleges and universities. The survey was sponsored by the American Association on Mental Deficiency. The study took its form from the concern that while residential institutes for the mentally retarded provided excellent laboratories for research and training of professional personnel and that while cooperative programs would be of mutual benefit to these facilities and to

related higher educational institutions, relatively few such programs had reached their potentialities.

Part of the report consists of a survey analysis of questionnaire returns and discussion of emerging factors which impede or promote establishment of cooperative training and research programs. The results here are not unexpected. What may be of particular interest to *Journal* readers and comprises the bulk of this report are the rather detailed descriptions of selected training and research programs at 18 different institutions. These are written with the refreshing view of conveying information about the program and this mission is accomplished in a readable style.

Predictive Factors for Graduate Study

Who Goes to Graduate School?, G. L. Gropper, & R. Fitzpatrick, 1959. American Institute for Research, 410 Anderson Ave., Pittsburgh, Pa.

While there have been a fair number of investigations of factors predictive of who goes to college and of their areas of specialization, this report moves one step further educationally in seeking to identify factors predictive of college seniors' decisions regarding graduate study.

Over 3,500 students from 35 different higher educational institutions were polled by questionnaires. The students were selected at three levels of training —seniors, first and second year graduate students, and advanced graduate students. By fields of study the students were fairly evenly divided among biology, engineering, English, history, law, physics, political science, and psychology.

The content consists largely of tabled data and their analysis in terms of (a) reasons for seeking advanced education, (b) characteristics of students seeking advanced education, and (c) decision factors for each of the seven fields.

Vocational considerations (49 per cent) were by far the most common bases for planning post-graduate study. Interestingly enough such considerations played a much smaller role in choice of field for graduate study. Here the influence of school experience and of faculty members was the single most common basis for decision. Concerns regarding finances appear as the most frequent problem among those attending, those planning to attend, and those not planning to attend graduate or professional schools.

This investigation is another indication of the growing empirical literature on educational-vocational choices and their correlates. This report was designed for use by faculty members and graduate school administrators. It should serve its purpose well.

New and Important Publications

PRIVATE PRACTICE IN CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

by Theodore H. Blau

The varied aspects of private practice are discussed and analyzed in this text, which is the first in its field to deal specifically with the usual and unusual situations and problems faced by the psychologist in practice. It provides a detailed discussion of the interest in private practice to date and a careful review of the necessary background and experience. Methodology, such as the taking of case histories, is fully treated. Discussions of psychotherapy and of the responsibilities of the psychologist are included. *184 pages, $3.00.*

TOWARD UNDERSTANDING HUMAN PERSONALITIES

by Robert Leeper and Peter Madison

While it does not neglect the contributions of psychotherapists and anthropologists, this book is based primarily on the findings of experimental psychologists, dealing with problems of learning, concept-formation, perception, and motivation. The emphasis is on the psychology of normal persons rather than abnormal psychology. Following five chapters of concrete material, the main psychological aspects and problems of personality are dealt with in more generalized terms. A number of detailed case histories illustrate the text. *439 pages, $5.50.*

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Association Activities

Active Committees Carry Out Vital Work

MANY COMMITTEES and commissions have been hard at work throughout the past months striving to complete necessary matters before Convention time. Members of these various groups have given freely and generously of their time and effort to promote the work of their respective groups. A brief report of some of the committees, their members, and their activities follows.

Archives Committee. Arthur J. Jones, Archivist, Evelyn Murray, Elizabeth Morrow. The Archives Committee met for several long sessions at the Headquarters Office in the fall. They catalogued and categorized much important historical material.

Branch Coordinator, Emerson Coyle. Dr. Coyle has gotten underway a Newsletter that is sent periodically to all of the branches. Through this Newsletter, and through a great deal of other correspondence with the branches, Dr. Coyle has made great strides in bringing information to the different branches and in gathering ideas that will be of help to them. He will chair a branch workshop during the Convention in Philadelphia that will be a very useful session for all branches.

Buildings and Grounds Committee. Kathryn L. Hopwood, Chairman, Donald Twiford. This is a newly formed committee to advise the Executive Council on long-term plans affecting the physical plant. They have held on organizational meeting in Washington with the Executive Director. The committee has attempted to define its role and function in relation to other committees and the Executive Council.

Committee on Ethics. Seth Arsenian, Chairman, Warren G. Findley, Lee Brown, Thomas Magoon, Corinne E. Gately. This committee has been established to study the member reaction to the proposed Code of Ethics for APGA that appeared in the October issue of the *Journal*. The committee is anxious to get comments regarding the proposed code from all members.

Committee on Guidance, Counseling, and Minority Group Problems. William D. Wilkins, Chairman, Cecil R. Forster, Allen Speiser, Ann Tanneyhill, Bennetta B. Washington. The committee has been urged by the Executive Council to develop suitable projects in which a professional organization such as APGA could help to alleviate minority group problems. The committee has met and is working out proposals along these lines.

Committee on Professional Training, Licensing, and Certification. Chairmanship now open, William P. Ewens, Willis E. Dugan, Roland G. Ross, William H. Edson, Harry W. Smallenburg, Martin E. McCavitt. Coordinating the activities of various groups relating to these professional problems has been the work this year of this group. They are expected to work very closely with the APGA project on the Role and Function of Guidance in American Education.

Constitution Committee. Gail Farwell, Chairman, James Costar, Atlee Beechy, Anthony Riccio. The Chairman met in Washington with the Executive Director and association attorney on matters dealing with major constitution changes. The full committee has submitted a first draft to our legal advisor. It is hoped that the revised constitution will be ready for presentation to the Executive Council at the Convention.

Credentials Committee. Leo G. Bent, Chairman, Willa Norris. This committee has its work well under way and this year's committee will wind up its activities at the time of the Convention in Philadelphia. All divisional representatives to the Assembly have been contacted to determine that

they will be present in Philadelphia, and the Committee is now in the process of contacting alternates to take the place of absent members.

Convention and Program Committee. Carl M. Grip, Jr., Convention Coordinator, John E. Free, Program Coordinator. The Philadelphia committee has been working diligently for months. The pre-registration materials appeared in the January issue of the *Journal,* and a tentative program will appear in the March issue. The Denver group is already hard at work on plans for the 1961 Convention.

Finance Committee. C. Harold McCully, Chairman, John J. Collins, Forrest H. Kirkpatrick, Elmer D. West, Fred Armstrong. This committee met in the late fall to develop further its plans and procedures for carrying through the long-range financial plans for the Association. The Committee now has its full complement of members.

International Relations Committee. Henry Borow, Dorothy J. Lipp, Co-Chairmen, James M. Davis, Gordon J. Klopf, Wesley P. Lloyd, Carl O. Peets, F. Chandler Young. A two-day meeting was held by this committee in the late autumn in New York City. They are working through the details of a plan to best disseminate a $1,000 grant from the Asia Foundation to enable Asian Nationals to become APGA members. Also from the Asia Foundation is a grant for bringing Asian Nationals in this country to the 1960 Convention, the details for which the committee is working out. A number of other projects and proposals that relate APGA and guidance to many foreign countries are being explored.

Membership Committee. William E. Truax, Chairman, George W. Murphy, Assistant Chairman, Robert L. McCleery, Roland G. Ross, Ramon L. Charles, Leslie O. Carlin, Kenneth H. Parker, Marvin R. Wayne. The committee has been doing a masterful job to increase membership in APGA. As this is written, the total membership has reached just under 11,000, and there is every indication that it will go over 12,000 by the end of the fiscal year. The APGA State Coordinators are being kept informed and encouraged by many communications from Bill Truax. Everyone concerned with membership has been very active in bringing about the increase.

Nominations and Elections Committee. Marion E. Peck, Chairman, Katherine E. Hopper, Senior Teller. The 1959–1960 committee has now completed its work and the election ballots are being prepared in the Headquarters Office. Ballots will be mailed to the membership in January. The 1960–1961 committee will be getting under way shortly.

Personnel and Guidance Advancement Program. C. C. Dunsmoor, Director. The membership is kept up to date monthly on Dinny's activities through the "Gap Gage" column that appears in the *Journal.*

Placement Committee. Alva Cooper, Chairman, Dorothy Arnold, Elizabeth James, Jane Berry, Robert Calvert, Jr., Robert M. Colver, William E. Hopke, William A. Lewis, Robert McCleery, Robert W. McClew, Rose M. Mullin, Julia E. Read, Helen Spaulding, Ralph K. Wilcox. The Placement Committee met in September in New York to develop plans for the year's work. Over 6,000 brochures describing the activities of the Placement Service have been sent out to school principals and administrators, junior college presidents, and others. A special effort is being made to bring before the members a special section in the *Placement Service Bulletin* devoted to summer school positions and candidates, as recommended by the committee. Plans for the Convention Placement Center are under way, and the chairman has spent some time in Washington planning this activity.

Publications Committee. Buford Stefflre, Chairman, Charles L. Lewis, Fred J. Moore, Willard W. Tennyson, Delmont K. Byrn, Richard M. Rundquist, Wray D. Silvey, Fred C. Proff, N. Harry Camp, Jr., Donald J. Kincaid, Lloyd H. Lofquist, John E. Muthard. The Publications Committee is concerned with all of the publications of APGA and its divisions. The committee's function is being further defined and clarified in the current constitutional revision.

Research Awards Committee. Gordon H.

Henley, Chairman, Stanley E. Davis, William J. Dipboye, Willis E. Dugan, Joseph L. French, Leo Goldman, Lee E. Isaacson, Abraham Jacobs, Ralph H. Johnson, William L. Kell, Barbara A. Kirk, Stanley S. Marzolf, Sumner B. Morris, Cecil H. Patterson, Philip W. Pendleton, Fred C. Proff, Robert H. Rossberg, Mark W. Smith, H. F. Vallery, Henry Weitz, George F. Wooster. This committee has received a record number of research papers this year. The papers have been of such a high caliber that the committee is asking for an extended session in which to present them at the Convention. At this writing, the group is close to a decision as to the research awards to be made at the Convention.

Resolutions Committee. Ralph G. Iverson, Chairman, Richard W. Whinfield, Henry L. Isaksen. Generally the Resolutions Committee functions only at the Convention, but the members are glad to accept resolutions throughout the year.

notes from
OUR BRANCHES

THE CALIFORNIA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION is making elaborate plans for its first state conference to be held in February of 1961 in Long Beach, California.

THE HAWAII PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION featured an address by Dr. E. Joseph Shoben, Jr., Teachers College, Columbia University, at its December meeting. Dr. Shoben spoke on "The Counseling Process." Program topics for future meetings are: "Ethics for Counselor," "College Planning," and "Vocations."

THE VIRGINIA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION will hold its annual convention at the Hotel Burlington, Washington, D. C., March 24 and 25. Highlights of the program will be talks by Commissioner of Education Lawrence G. Derthick and Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell. Many other nationally-known figures will participate in the program which has as its theme "Utilizing National Resources."

THE NORTHERN CALIFORNIA GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION held its fall conference on November 14 at Arroyo High School. Dr. Arthur Hitchcock, Executive Director of APGA, and Dr. Walter Lifton, Director of Guidance Services, Science Research Associates, spoke at the two general sessions. There were also five sectional meetings held during the day.

THE KENTUCKY PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION held its second annual conference at Cumberland Falls State Park on October 15 and 16. The general theme and purpose was the conducting of a workshop for counselors. Over 100 persons attended the two-day meeting. Discussion groups were held on the following topics: (1) Developing College and Job Planning Programs; (2) The State's Program of Guidance Services; and (3) Pupil Appraisal. Three groups of counselors were organized and the topics and consultants rotated among the groups. A problems clinic was held on the last afternoon. Dr. Elbert Ockerman, Head of the Bureau of Guidance Services of the State Department of Education, spoke at the banquet on the subject, "The Backward Look." The program was planned and coordinated by Mr. Ben Freeman, Chairman of the Professional Service Committee and Director of Pupil Personnel in the Louisville Public Schools.

THE NATIONAL CAPITAL AREA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION'S January meeting was devoted to a discussion of plans and programs for the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. Evelyn Murray was in charge of the discussion and Mrs. Henry Grattan Doyle described activities of the District White House Conference Committee.

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PHILADELPHIA, APRIL 11–14

To help you learn more about your Convention city and to insure that your visit to historic Philadelphia is a profitable and memorable one, your Convention Committee has arranged the following special tours. You will want to take this opportunity to make reservations for one or more of the special group conducted tours. You will also want to visit Independence Hall and the Betsy Ross House, which are within a short distance of your hotel, the U.S. Mint, and beautiful Fairmount Park. For complete details, be sure to check at the Tours Desk in the Headquarters Hotel—the Bellevue-Stratford.

PROGRAM CONTENT TOURS

Electronics Data Processing: Its Implications for Counseling

A demonstration of Remington Rand's Univac at Franklin Institute. There will be a panel discussion on programming, the theory of numbers, and the use of electronic machines in personnel procedures.

Wednesday, April 13, 9:00–11:30 A.M.

Oil Refining Plant Tour: Guidance at Work

A tour of the Atlantic Refining Company refinery. See a short color film and men at work in various occupations. Learn about the hiring standards, tests, and wages scales at this processing plant. Buses will leave from the Headquarters Hotel.

Tuesday, April 12, 1:00–4:30 P.M.

GROUP CONDUCTED TOURS IN GREATER PHILADELPHIA

1. **Valley Forge Battlefield**—Washington's headquarters 1777–1778. See hospital huts used by Continental Army and visit Memorial Chapel.
   Sunday, April 10, 2:00 P.M. (about four hours) $3.48 per person
2. **Philadelphia Navy Yard**—A complete tour, conducted by competent Navy personnel, including a visit aboard a submarine.
   Sunday, April 10, 9:30 A.M. (about three hours) $1.50 per person
3. **Longwood Gardens**—Beautiful arboretums, formal gardens, and fountain display unequalled anywhere in U.S. Visit Hagley Museum, site of original powder mill of the Dupont Company, and tour Brandywine Battlefield. Saturday, April 9, 9:30 A.M. (about seven hours) $5.50 per person (not including lunch)

All three of these tours leave from the Convention Headquarters Hotel. Make your reservation by completing the coupon and mailing to:

Mrs. Mary G. Raney
Tours Chairman
45 Rockglen Road
Philadelphia 31, Pennsylvania

I wish to take tour(s) 1. 2. 3. and enclose a check to cover the cost of the tour(s) selected. (Make check payable to Mary G. Raney.)

Mr.
Miss
Mrs. _____

_____

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From the Executive Director . . .

In the Association news of this issue you will see some evidence of some of the members who are devoting themselves to the professional work of the Association. Each of these persons and all of these committees deserve our warmest gratitude for the part that they take in the growth of the Association in a professional direction.

A new committee of particular importance to all of APGA is in the process of being formulated and will be considered by the Executive Council in the spring. This is a long-range policy and planning committee, the major membership of which would consist of past presidents of the Association. One of the great losses that the Association has suffered has been the inability of past presidents, through our procedures, to contribute as they might through the years. This new committee will provide a means of utilizing their statesmanship in considering and recommending *possible* lines of development for the Association in the future.

The Association is developing memberwise, and I am pleased to report to you that at the end of December there were 11,178 members. It is very possible for the aim that Membership Chairman William E. Truax made of 12,000 members by April 30 to come true. In the meantime there will be a number of members whose dues expire and if they renew them promptly, I am very sure the aim will be achieved.

At this time I should like to have the opportunity to tell you of several important changes that have been occurring in the office staff. You are aware from the masthead of the *Journal* that Nancy Mitchell is no longer on the staff. She left in November and has now added to the population with a healthy little boy. Roger Bowman is in charge of publications and specifically serves as Assistant Editor of the *Journal*.

The major change, however, has been in the creation of three assistant directorships. There is now an Assistant Director for Administration, and this is Thomas M. Lescalleet; there is an Assistant Director for Professional Relations and this is Carl McDaniels; there is now an Assistant Director for Membership and this is Mary E. Janicke. These three assistant directors are responsible for the entire functioning of the office. The various departments come under them. Through the assistant directors and the departments, the work of the office is carried out. The elevation of membership activities above the level of a department is a major step in our activity. I am going to tell you very frankly that this has occurred because the membership activity is the most sensitive and the single most important activity of the office. Involving a great deal of work, it requires a person of Mrs. Janicke's competence to carry it out. I am very sorry to lose her as the Administrative Secretary but this constitutes a promotion for her.

Let me close on the note of the principal news in the Washington papers these days, namely about Congress. We are anticipating that there will be a bill introduced and probably reported favorably to remove the "Disclaimer" from the provision for receiving benefits under the National Defense Education Act. This has a fairly good chance of passage. We expect that there will be a major effort to pass legislation that will liberalize the provisions for college academic buildings and residence housing. There is some chance that a school construction bill will be passed, and if so, it may well be signed into law by the President. We are not anticipating much additional action affecting education during this session.—Arthur A. Hitchcock

APGA is participating in the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, March 27–April 2, 1960.

WHO'S WHO

—and Where

NEWTON P. LEONARD has retired from his position as Head of the Guidance Department, Mount Pleasant High School, Providence, Rhode Island, after 37 years of teaching, the last 19 of which have been in guidance work. He will continue as consultant to Aptitude Testing Service and as Counselor on the administrative staff of Roger Williams Junior College, both in Providence.

ARNOLD GANLEY has been appointed Resident Counselor for Myles Standish Hall, a Boston University dormitory for men. Dr. Ganley has been with the Boston Public School system as a teacher and principal from 1932–1959, with the exception of three years spent in the Army Air Force.

CLARENCE W. FAILOR, Associate Professor and Field Representative in Guidance, School of Education, University of Colorado, will devote his sabbatical leave during the spring semester to investigating the status of educational and vocational guidance services in the schools of Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica. Readers of the *Journal* are promised a report on his findings.

Word has been received of the sudden death of JOHN R. BOWEN from a coronary occlusion on November 24, 1959. Dr. Bowen was a member of Bowen Associates, Consultant Psychologists in Dallas, Texas.

The *Journal* has been notified of the death of DR. CHARLES H. THOMPSON on November 30, 1959. Dr. Thompson was a member of NVGA for many years and was one of the founders of the Wyoming Personnel and Guidance Association. He was a member of the staff of the University of Wyoming since 1946 and served as Head of the Testing Service in the Division of Student Personnel and Guidance since 1948.

Need instructors for summer school guidance courses?

Interested in teaching summer school guidance courses?

The APGA *Placement Service Bulletin* will feature in the February, March, and April issues summer school teaching openings and available APGA member-candidates. If you are planning an expanded offering of courses in guidance work this summer, here is where you will want to list your teaching positions. If you are interested in teaching college or university courses in guidance or related fields this summer, you will want to have your listing in the March and April issues of the

PLACEMENT SERVICE BULLETIN

This service is free to all employers; the subscription fee for APGA member-candidates is $2.00. *Only APGA members* may join the Placement Service as candidates.

For full details write:

Mr. Carl McDaniels

APGA Placement Service

1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W.

Washington 9, D.C.

Publications Available from the American Personnel and Guidance Association

THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL — $9.00 a year
Official magazine of the Association, published monthly September through May

BOUND VOLUMES OF THE JOURNAL
1 copy of each volume (7 volumes in all) — 60.00
1 volume — 11.00
2 volumes — 10.75 a volume
3 volumes — 10.50 a volume
4 volumes — 10.00 a volume
5 volumes — 9.50 a volume
6 volumes — 9.00 a volume

THE VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE QUARTERLY — 3.00 a year
Published quarterly by the National Vocational Guidance Association

THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR — 1.60 a year
Published quarterly by the American School Counselor Association

JOURNAL OF COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL — $1.50 a year
(formerly Personnel-O-Gram)
Published three times a year by the American College Personnel Association

APGA DIRECTORY OF MEMBERS — (Members) 1.00 (Non-members) 2.00
An alphabetical and geographical listing of members including job title, address, and institution

DIRECTORY OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING SERVICES, 1958-1960 — 1.50
Approved list of agencies published by the American Board on Professional Standards in Vocational Counseling, Inc.; biennial

HOW ABOUT COLLEGE?* — .25
A guide for parents of college-bound students prepared by the American School Counselor Association

HOW TO VISIT COLLEGES* — .25

HOW TO CREATE YOUR CAREER* — .30
Handbooks for students, teachers, and parents, prepared by the Public Information and Professional Relations Committee of NVGA

NVGA BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CURRENT OCCUPATIONAL LITERATURE, 1959 Revision — 1.00
Evaluated list of recent occupational information prepared by Guidance Information Review Service of NVGA

COUNSELOR PREPARATION — .50
A manual on the preparation of counselors, prepared by NVGA

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR COUNSELOR PREPARATION — .25

REHABILITATION COUNSELOR PREPARATION* — 1.00
Training needs of rehabilitation counselors, prepared by NVGA and the National Rehabilitation Association

JOB ANALYSES OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL WORKERS — .25
Interim report by the Study Commission of the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations

AN INVITATION FOR MEMBERSHIP — Free
Information about the American Personnel and Guidance Association and its Divisions

STUDENT FINANCIAL AID — 1.50
A manual for colleges and universities prepared by the American College Personnel Association

STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES IN UNIVERSITIES OF THE WORLD — 1.00
A report on conferences with university and government officials by Wesley P. Lloyd

FELLOWSHIPS, SCHOLARSHIPS, AND ASSISTANTSHIPS FOR GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL GRADUATE TRAINING — .35
by Carl McDaniels

THE USE OF MULTIFACTOR TESTS IN GUIDANCE* — 1.00
Articles by test authors with introductory and summary articles by Donald E. Super; reprinted from the Personnel and Guidance Journal

BASIC APPROACHES TO MENTAL HEALTH IN THE SCHOOLS* — 1.00
Articles on school programs working toward mental hygiene by those administering the programs, with introductory and summary articles by Joseph Samler; reprinted from the Personnel and Guidance Journal

WHY FINISH HIGH SCHOOL?* — .25
A discussion of why high school students should complete their education by Carl M. Elliott, President of the American School

THE PLACEMENT SERVICE BULLETIN — 2.00 a year
A publication of the Placement Committee, listing current jobs in the field of guidance and personnel and resumes of APGA members who are available for positions

* *Quantity prices available*

Postage extra unless payment is enclosed with order.

Order from National Headquarters

American Personnel and Guidance Association
1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W., Washington 9, D. C.

The GAP Gage: A Little Today—A Lot Tomorrow

DINNY DUNSMOOR, DIRECTOR
APGA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM

THERE'S AN OLD SAYING to the effect that "a loafer must feel sort of funny when a holiday comes along." By something of the same token, members of APGA and a few of the business concerns whose "bread and butter" largely come from APGAN's are going to feel sort of funny when the plaques for Life Subscribers, Day's Papers, and Special Donors go up in our new APGA Headquarters and their names are conspicuous by their absence therefrom.

It is noteworthy that nearly 100 per cent more APGAN's today—one year after the purchase of our new home in Washington, D. C.—"have their shoulders to the GAP wheel" than was the case a year ago. More and more are the members of our association and profession opening their eyes to the fact that 20th Century Rip Van Winkles have no real place in our modern professional organizations—that both the world and the association must, and will, go on.

When the number of APGAN's who are staunchly supporting GAP (APGA's Building Fund) again increases 100 per cent—when a great many more members devote increasing amounts of time to APGA activities—then, and only then, will we be able to take the further rapid strides in professional advancement and service which we rightfully should and which education, business, industry, and government are so extensively demanding of us these days.

The purchase of our new home to serve as an urgently-needed base of operations and to house the projected Personnel and Guidance Foundation was one of the most significant forward steps we could possibly have taken at this stage of APGA's development. We are in a far better position today as a result of this and the additional, wise action of the executive Council in increasing dues beyond the marginal existence level where we too long tried to operate.

APGA has made great strides the past year or two in becoming a significant factor and leader in the personnel and guidance profession, and our impact upon developments which concern our membership is steadily increasing.

But the real impact of APGA is only in its infancy. This is only the beginning, for the professional soil to which APGA is dedicated is fertile indeed, and its potentially great productivity awaits only the cultivation of a sufficient number of our membership who are appropriately imbued with vision, professional zeal, and skilled "know how."

It would be interesting if we could peer ahead and see the APGA of five years hence, but since we cannot do this, let's project our thinking ahead to that time in a few aspects of our developemnt. By then, we should have a membership of at least 16,000; we should have our new home completely paid for; and we should be established in our larger building, which is currently leased. The scope of our activities will be greatly increased; the Personnel and Guidance Foundation will have become a reality and will be rendering extensive service to our members and our public; and in line with the above, the Headquarters Staff will likely be about double its present size.

The major hurdle to be overcome at present is the material reduction and quick demolition of our mortgage. If each member were to contribute as little as $15 to GAP in 1960, all this could be accomplished by the year's end and many thousands of dollars in interest could be saved.

It is important that *each member have a share* in paying for our new home, even though he contribute no more than $5 or $10, or even only $1 or $2. Having a permanent equity, small though it may be, makes a member a better "stockholder" in APGA. May we count on *your* help now!

give a friend this page—help him join APGA
YOU ARE ELIGIBLE

for ACPA—American College Personnel Association—

Division 1

IF YOU spend at least half your time in some kind of student personnel work, teaching, administration or research in a college, or do personnel work in industry, government, or a public agency, and have at least a master's degree in an appropriate field of study. Graduate students may become associate members.

for NAGSCT—National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers

Division 2

IF YOU are an administrator or supervisor of guidance, working on a state or national level, a counselor trainer in an educational institution (university or college) preparing counselors, or if you have been a guidance supervisor or counselor trainer and are now engaged in professional guidance service work.

for NVGA—National Vocational Guidance Association—

Division 3

IF YOU are interested in guidance and personnel work you may be a *general* member. *Associate* members need a basic level of academic qualifications and experience. *Professional* membership requires 30 graduate hours in specified areas of training, 4 years appropriate experience, and current employment (more than 1/2 time) in guidance and personnel work.

for SPATE—Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education—

Division 4

IF YOU do student personnel work or are engaged in activities which contribute significantly to such services in a teacher-education institution.

for ASCA—American School Counselor Association—

Division 5

IF YOU have released time for performing guidance duties in a school below the college level and have completed eight semester hours in the areas of mental hygiene, guidance services, testing, and methods and techniques of counseling.

for DRC—Division of Rehabilitation Counseling—

Division 6

IF YOU are engaged in any aspect of rehabilitation counseling such as administration, teaching, research, or service. Graduate students or those who devote at least one-half time to any aspect of rehabilitation counseling may become associate members.

As of May 1, APGA dues for one year are $15.00 and include dues for one Division.
Dues for additional Divisions are now $2.00 each.

☐ I am applying for membership in APGA and the Division(s) checked as follows:
ACPA...., NAGSCT...., NVGA...., [NVGA (Prof)*....,] SPATE...., ASCA...., DRC.....
Amount for APGA and one Division checked above..... $15.00
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☐ I enclose payment TOTAL.... $.....

Current paid members fill out this section:
☐ I belong to APGA and at least one Division and am applying for additional memberships as follows:
ACPA...., NAGSCT...., NVGA...., [NVGA (Prof)*....,] SPATE...., ASCA...., DRC.....
☐ I enclose payment TOTAL additional memberships at $2.00 each..... $.....

NAME.....
ADDRESS.....
JOB TITLE.....
PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT..... ☐ **MEMBER-AT-LARGE**
BRANCH PREFERENCE.....

* This category applies only to NVGA members and requires an additional $1.00 in dues.

Mail to American Personnel and Guidance Association, Inc.
1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W., Washington 9, D. C.

Officers and Committee Chairmen of the AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

(Consisting of the following divisions: American College Personnel Association, National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, National Vocational Guidance Association, Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education, American School Counselor Association, and Division of Rehabilitation Counseling)

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APGA Convention—April 11–14, 1960—Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

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